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媒介素养教育研究

A Study on Media Literacy Education

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内 容 简 介

本书共5章,以媒介素养教育理念为中心,探讨了在当今复杂的媒介环境中媒介素养技能培养的重要性和迫切性,尝试将批评话语分析作为一种视角和方法用于媒介素养教学,培养学生批判性解读媒介信息的技能,同时积极探索语言学、新闻传播学等相关学科教学与媒介素养教育相结合的途径。

本书适合英语及新闻传播学专业的高年级本科生、语言学方向研究生及相关研究者阅读参考。

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Preface

Today, we immerse in a complicated media environment. Undoubtedly and unavoidably, the traditional literacy, which could not keep pace with the swift development of digital information and communication technologies, has been challenged and requires to be expanded. My initial motivation for writing this book arises from a sense of responsibility and a keen interest in combining my research with my teaching. As a college English teacher, I feel obligated to do something through my teaching to raise the students' awareness of media literacy as well as to foster their media literate abilities and skills in today's complex media world. As we know, English is an important part of the compulsory curriculum in many countries, including China. As media literacy education has been a particular concern for teachers of English or teachers of language and literature, much of the energy of media literacy educators has focused on the attempt to integrate media teaching within the curriculum for English (Bazalgette, 1991; Goodwyn, 1992; Hart and Hicks, 2001). "What does it mean to be literate?" and "How can the media literacy skills be fostered?" are two important and key questions in media literacy pedagogy. This book suggests integrated strategies and interdisciplinary

approaches in daily teaching. It intends to adopt the idea of integrating Critical Discourse Analysis into media literacy teaching and foster the students' critical thinking through deconstructing media messages.

This book could not have been completed without the help of many people. I wish to express my sincere gratitude to all of them. First, special acknowledgment is given to Prof. Su Chengzhi, my respectable supervisor, who has retired for several years from the Foreign Languages College, Shanghai Normal University. Second, I would like to take this opportunity to extend my thanks to my colleagues in the School of International Studies, Hangzhou Dianzi University, whose encouragements and help are constructive to the completion of this work. The last but not the least, I feel grateful to my family for their unconditional love and support.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 The research background

1.1.1 The research motivations

We live in a world surrounded with various and complex media. Along with the explosion of the Internet since the mid-1990s, the widespread digital communication technologies provides us, especially the students with a convenient access to the adequate, or even nearly unlimited information, which has empowered students to become self-directed learners. Then comes the question, how could we figure out what information is useful for us and avoid being deceived by the constructed media messages at the same time?

When harmed by the media effects, we may incline to condemn the improper media performance and rarely question our own role in

the mass communication process instead. It is likely to be overlooked, because we participate in the ubiquitous and indispensable mass communication so naturally. Then, what should we do when dealing with the vast media information each day? We have no alternative but to be literate, which requires us to be able to recognize bias as well as misinformation, and to identify disguised facts as well as other distortions in the complicated media world.

To be critically literate is significantly important for us to decode media messages nowadays. As Jeff Share (2009) observes, “the manner in which media cloak their role in reproducing hegemony as merely entertainment or information tends to hamper critical analysis of the inequalities of power in society and our relationships with media” . Douglas Kellner (1995) gives an explanation that critical literacy “gives individuals power over their culture ... enabling people to create their own meanings, identities, and to shape and transform the material and social conditions of their culture and society”.

When we move from reading books in print to reading on a digital reader, the education is also required to keep in pace with the development of digital devices that can be used to obtain, share and discuss information. Schools have been struggling with providing an appropriate teaching method to fit the students who are used to employing technology and social media routinely each day to communicate with others in their lives, keep abreast of what is happening in the world, solve problems that arise, and be creative. Educators have struggled to integrate the changing technology and media into the learning process. Instead of banning the use of cellphones and other digital tools in class to keep distractions, schools should embrace the technology of digital devices as tools for teaching and learning and

foster the students to be media literate enough to decode the constructed media messages in the media world. This book intends to apply Critical Discourse Analysis to media literacy teaching, which is a combination of teaching linguistics and media literacy education.

1. 1. 2 The research objectives

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) has developed rapidly in the past three decades or so with its quite diverse research topics, such as politics, economy, wars, strikes, gender inequality, racial discrimination, and so on. Among these researches, many are focused on the media discourse. In the early 1970s, under the influence of the theory of ideology, mainly that of Althusser and Gramsci, the trend of critical studies on mass media appeared. The so-called transparency and value-free myth of the press has been repeatedly overthrown, and the hidden ideology of the language use in media discourse has drawn people's attention. "Discourses are ideological and there is no arbitrariness of signs" (Wodak, 2001) and "ideology is pervasively present in language" (Fairclough, 1989). Simpson (1993) points out that "as no use of language is considered truly neutral, objective and value-free, then theoretically critical linguistic analysis may be performed on any form of discourse." However, most researches on media discourse from the CDA perspective prefer to investigate the hidden ideology of those so-called "political kind" reports. On the contrary, those news on sports, economy, entertainment, education and science, etc. which seems more "neutral", gains relatively rare attention.

Therefore, this study aims to (1) elaborate on the importance of being media literate and raise the students' media literacy awareness; (2) integrate CDA with media literacy teaching to foster the

students' media literacy abilities and skills, at the same time to show the feasibility of interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary method in media literacy education; (3) demonstrate the process of deconstructing news messages and serve a supplement to the existing critical studies of media discourse by doing a critical discourse analysis on the news reports concerning “peace, development, cooperation and benefit”.

1.2 The significance of the research

The present study embraces the idea of interdisciplinary or cross-disciplinary approach to the media literacy education. It also exerts the idea by integrating Critical Discourse Analysis into media literacy teaching and proves the feasibility of it in “reading” media. The research provides us with a critical perspective in decoding media messages and an approach to practicing media literacy teaching within the discipline of Linguistics. It not only helps to raise the students' media literate awareness, but also foster their media literate abilities and skills.

Based on the idea of media literacy education and the theoretical framework of Critical Discourse Analysis, the present study is meant to be a contribution to as well as an application of CDA in media literacy education not only confined to linguistics. It is intended to deconstruct the news messages in sample reports and show us how China's English media produce reports on economic activities and terror attacks. By analyzing four sample reports from the Xinhuanet, it reveals the hidden relationships between language and ideology in the

seemingly “neutral” news events. It also examines the language use to see how language is influenced and employed by the reporter's ideology in news discourse and how the ideology comes into being.

Choosing reports concerning “peace, development, cooperation and mutual benefit” as its focus, the book offers a supplement to the existing CDA studies of media discourse, and it also attempts to point out that whatever topic it covers, news discourse is, more or less, unavoidably of subjectivity. In other words, no news report is absolutely objective and impartial. Those news reports on seemingly “neutral” events, more or less have carried political or other elements and reflect the certain ideologies of the powerful groups through discourse. Thus it helps to prove and universalize the validity of the claim that news discourse is value-laden and ideologically invested.

Moreover, it hopes that the present study may help the readers and learners not only to be aware of the importance and necessity of media literacy education, but to be able to employ critical thinking to analyze media messages in the complex media world nowadays.

1.3 The research data and methodology

1.3.1 Research data

Nowadays, news media becomes a general means for people to get worldwide information. With escalating economic strength and increasing communication influence, Chinese news media plays a more and more vital role in the world's media market. Sponsored and supported by the Xinhua News Agency, Xinhuanet, which has developed

its own global network and is an all-media information gathering, processing and spreading platform, becomes China's important central news service-oriented website, and one of the most influential news portals in the world. All the news data chosen and used in the study is collected through internet. To be specific, it is from the Xinhuanet, a representative media website in China, which has its prestige and influence worldwide. Internet, to some extent, as a basic and widely used medium to people, is rather convenient for us to get the relevant information swiftly and efficiently from the event. Besides, the online version of the news reports is identical in content to the officially published version.

As to how to define a research project, Norman Fairclough (1992) who considers “language as social practice”, concludes that “research projects in discourse analysis are ... most sensibly defined first in terms of questions about particular forms of social practice, and their relations to social structure... Discourse analysis should best be regarded as a method for conducting research into questions which are defined outside it.” The defining questions of the sample news reports in the study are as follows: (1) What linguistic features and structures are employed by the reporters in the sample reports? (2) What ideologies are the news messages in the sample reports intended to construct? (3) Are they value-free? If not, how are they ideologically reproduced?

1.3.2 Research methodology

To media literacy education, the abilities and skills to decode or deconstruct a wide range of media forms and contents are of significant concern. This study will adopt a combination of literature review

and sample analysis to elaborate on the importance and feasibility of media literacy education in teaching and daily life, especially to the students. As it goes through a literature review of media, media literacy and media literacy education, this book puts forward the idea of combining Critical Discourse Analysis with media literacy teaching, that is integrating Discourse Analysis into media literacy teaching. It is intended to employ the CDA to analyze four sample news reports, which are selected from the Xinhuanet with the topics concerning China's Belt and Road initiatives, the 2016 annual conference of the Boao Forum for Asia (BFA) and the Brussels attack, to set an example of interdisciplinary approach in media literacy teaching.

1.4 The organization of the book

The book is organized in five chapters. The first chapter, the current one, serves as a general introduction. Here, the research background is briefly sketched, the purpose and significance of the research are stated, the data collection and adopted methodology in the research are made clear, and the organization of the whole book is introduced.

Chapter 2 is a literature review of media, media literacy and media literacy education respectively. First, it addresses the notion of media and its various types, then focuses on the studies of news, especially the definition of news and the review of news value and news frame. Secondly, it introduces some definitions, characteristics and skills of media literacy as well as critical thinking, which is considered as one of the four important 21st skills. Thirdly, it defines what

media literacy education is and discusses the purpose and related “key concepts” of media literary education. It also looks at the feasibility of the integration strategies and interdisciplinary approaches in teaching media literacy.

Chapter 3 introduces Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as a perspective and an approach into news analysis. According to the relevance to the current research, the studies on news discourse, the definition of CDA, the conception of language, ideology and power, and previous CDA studies abroad and at home are stated selectively, more or less in detail. Then, as the theoretical framework and analytic tools, Fairclough's three-dimensional framework of CDA and Halliday's Functional Grammar are adopted and elaborated.

Chapter 4 briefly explains the data collection and sample selection of the study. Then the critical discourse analysis of the samples is carried out at the textual, discursive and societal levels in this chapter.

Chapter 5 presents with the findings, implications as well as the limitations of the study.

Chapter 2

Media, media literacy and media literacy education

2.1 Media

2.1.1 What is media?

Formally, the term “media” is the plural form of medium in mass communication. It is defined as “a substance or a channel through which effects or information can be carried or transmitted” and “something we use when we want to communicate with people indirectly, rather than in person or by face-to-face contact” (Buckingham, 2003). Media convey messages through language, visuals and audios. Media messages are mass-produced both for a mass audience and a small or specialized audience and are mediated by some form of

modern technologies. In the process of mass communication, it is through the media in whatever form that the producers of media messages, media messages and the receivers of those messages, which are the three important components, could make the communication itself effective.

When asking people to name the different kinds of mass media they once have used or heard of so far, the list may include radio, television, books, newspapers, magazines, the internet/computers, movies, cellphones, music, advertising, billboards, posters, etc. It used to be the discussions of “media” focused primarily on mass media, something that typically involved one-way communication and was created by a few for the consumption of many. The vast majority of mass media are created by large multinational corporations for commercial purposes.

Here, we intend to remind the roles of books as an important and a traditional medium should not be neglected in this electronic age. Despite the fact that books have been a major form of mass media for more than two centuries and are probably the most common form of media currently used in schools, people are still likely to associate the word media only with electronic technologies, or perhaps they think of media as “bad” or harmful, and they think of books as “good” or positive. Whatever the reason, in an inquiry-based approach to media literacy education, it is essential to include books alongside newer forms of media. AsBaran (2014) points out, although all media serve the following cultural functions to some degree, books traditionally have been seen as a powerful cultural force for these reasons:

- *Books are agents of social and cultural change.* Free of the

need to generate mass circulation for advertisers, off beat, controversial, even revolutionary ideas can reach the public.

- *Books are an important cultural repository.*
- *Books are our windows on the past.*
- *Books are important sources of personal development.* The obvious forms are self-help and personal improvement volumes. But books also speak to us more individually than advertiser-supported media because of their small, focused target markets.
- *Books are wonderful sources of entertainment, escape, and personal reflection.*
- *The purchase and reading of a book is a much more individual, personal activity than consuming advertiser-supported (television, radio, newspapers, and magazines) or heavily promoted (popular music and movies) media.* As such, books tend to encourage personal reflection to a greater degree than these other media.
- *Books are mirrors of culture.* Books, along with other mass media, reflect the culture that produces and consumes them.

For far too long, professional journalism has existed as a simple one-time information transfer from reporter to reader. The explosion of the social web, which has seen the rise of social networking and blogging services like Facebook, Twitter, Weibo, and Weixin, has changed the way people who find their information on the Internet think about their role as media consumers. Today, the comments section of a piece of online media can be as important as the media itself, and the debates sparked there often take on lives of their own, lasting weeks or months. The conversation and interaction among individuals

based on news and information has become as important as the original content.

The media not only reports news today, it can also create news like the social media Twitter did during the Arab Spring. The media do not offer a transparent window on the world to us. They provide channels through which representations and images of the world can be communicated indirectly. The media intervene; they provide us with selective versions of the world, rather than direct access to it (Buckingham, 2003).

2. 1. 2 Studies on news

2. 1. 2. 1 Notion of news

News itself is new today. The manner in which most people obtain their information has been transformed by the Internet. It is fast-paced, with accelerated delivery systems creating a news cycle measured in minutes or even seconds, rather than by days. It is mobile, reaching people in the most unlikely places at every moment of the day on their laptops and cell phones. It is also opinion driven, with analysis, slant, and bias occupying ever more bandwidth.

The question whether news is a reflection of actual events or it is a construction by journalists can not be avoided when talking about the news. As Fowler (1991) argues, news is not a natural phenomenon emerging straight from “reality”, but a product. It is produced by an industry, shaped by the bureaucratic and economic structure of that industry, by the relations between the media and other industries, and most importantly by relations with government and with other political organizations. From a broader perspective, it reflects, and in turn shapes, the prevailing values of a society in a particular

historical context.

Generally speaking, news can be defined from two perspectives, journalistic perspective and linguistic perspective. From the perspective of journalism, it has several definitions; (a) new information (about events, things and persons) which was not known before; (b) a report of recent events as given each day by newspaper, radio, etc. ; (c) something told as having just happened; information about something that has just happened or will soon happen; (d) a kind of TV or radio program type in which news items are presented (van Dijk, 1988a). These definitions emphasize that news is informative, representative of social reality.

But from the linguistic perspective, news is a very typical example of “language-in-use”, of socially structured meanings. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary*, news is defined as “tidings; the report or account of recent events or occurrences, brought to or coming to one as new information; new occurrences as a subject of report or talk” . News is not only what happened recently but also what recent events can be regarded as newsworthy. Fowler (1991) argues that newspaper coverage of world events is not like what it is presented as the unbiased and fair recording of “hard facts”.

According to the different natures of the content of news events, news can be divided into hard news and soft news. The samples in this study are chosen from the so-called “hard news” and other media forms such as editorials, book review are ignored.

Hard news, which is also called spot news or straight news, is a chronicle of events or incidents and is the factual, timely account of significant news media. It should try to reflect facts fairly in news media discourse. However, many scholars discovered that news did

not limit itself to reality, and also contained values, preference statements and so on. According to John Vivian and Alfred Lawrence Lorenz (1996), “stories on events, significant phenomena and issues are called ‘hard new’”, and elements of hard-news stories include “timeliness, proximity, prominence, currency, drama and, most important, consequence”.

However, when we take a closer look at the news, it becomes clear that news is not the total reflection of reality, it is a construction by journalists instead. News coverage is triggered by actual occurrences. The news reports presented by the media to us are not the events themselves. They could be the stories about the events which are constructed by journalists who are significantly influenced by unavoidable constraints, the business environment, and operating conventions.

2. 1. 2. 2 News value

News is not “found” or “gathered” as it is claimed by journalism, it is “made” . Stuart Hall argues that “the media do not simply and transparently report events which are ‘naturally’ newsworthy in themselves. ‘News’ is the end product of a complex process which begins with a systematic sorting and selecting of events and topics according to a socially constructed set of categories” (Fowler, 1991). Fowler also argues that the news media select events for reporting according to a complex set of criteria of newsworthiness. And these criteria, which are probably more or less unconscious in editorial practice, are referred to as “news value” (ibid.).

Galtung and Ruge (1965) provide a list of criteria to recognize news value, which is widely accepted. The criteria are as follows:

- Frequency: the time-span of an event and the extent to which

it “fits” the frequency of the newspaper's schedule.

- **Threshold:** How big is an event? Is it big enough to make it into the news?
- **Unambiguity:** How clear is the meaning of an event?
- **Meaningfulness:** How meaningful will the event appear to the receivers of the news? It includes two aspects as cultural proximity and relevance. The latter is preferred.
- **Consonance:** Does the event match the media's expectations?
- **Unexpectedness:** If an event is highly unpredictable, then it is likely to make it into news. It also includes two aspects: predictability and demand.
- **Continuity:** Once an event has been reported, its news value decreases while the news status continues for a while.
- **Composition:** Editors compose the news reporting with the information they can find.
- **Reference to elite nation:** Those nations which lead in politics, economy, and culture will receive most of the coverage.
- **Reference to the elite people:** The media pay much attention to celebrities and power group.
- **Personalization:** Events are seen as the actions of individuals.
- **Negativity:** Bad news is easily accepted by the public.

The criteria seem to be rather objective to make a formulized procedure in selecting news to be reported. However, it is inevitable that the news value depends greatly on the ideology of those who can decide what to report and how to report.

Today, journalists, editors, and news media outlets are more open to multi-platform, cross-media collaboration in ways they would never have dreamed of before. Now, journalists can access news and

sources immediately through their Internet and social media connections to people and sources around the world. Information, video, sounds, and music can be transported across the globe from one journalist to another. Journalists can build on information obtained from other journalists and the general public. After breaking the first story, journalists can follow up on the story and show the public how the news is unfolding with a constant stream of information from around the world that is readily available and not protected by one single journalist or newspaper. In addition, the collection and analysis of comments from various media sources allow readers, listeners, and viewers to have the opportunity to ask questions or suggest other angles to the story that journalists might then investigate and produce. Jensen (1997) says,

The media are more concerned with their next quarterly profit than with the unique opportunity given them by the First Amendment. And most journalists are more concerned with keeping their jobs and increasing their income than with fighting for the public's right to know ... America's mainstream mass media basically serve three segments of society today—the wealthy, politicians, and the sports-minded. The news media have done an exceptional job providing full and, on the whole, reliable information to those who are involved in or follow the stock market and to those who are involved in or follow politics and to those who are involved in or follow sports.

Many traditional journalists did not think to engage actively with their audiences. They often wrote more for their editors and the subjects of their articles than for the actual readers of the work. Many journalists neglected to think about how and why, or whether the

stories were relevant to the majority of their readers' lives. Also, these same journalists often did not think about how to obtain and sustain engagement in the issues addressed in their articles, except for the editorial pages or longer and continued investigative journalism articles. Not only was the subject of engagement overlooked by journalists, but also very little thought was given to collaboration across media platforms. The competition among journalists and owners of newspapers kept them from reaching out to other compatriots across the country and around the world to produce articles that complemented and added to the conversation.

Schement (1998) argues “in the calculus of modern media, ethnicity has emerged as a potent determinant for organising media segments” . What is crucial to understand “is that not all audiences are equally valued in the market. If particular audience segments that are attracted (or produced) by particular content are undervalued in the market, advertisers will be unwilling to pay the same ‘cost per thousand’ they would be willing to pay for more ‘desirable’ audiences” (Gandy, 2000).

As Curran and Seaton (1997) have argued, organizations that conform to the “marketing requirements of advertisers” obtain large external subsidies that they “can then spend on increased editorial outlay and promotion in order to attract new readers” . Both broadcasters and newspapers “are in the business of producing audiences. These audiences, or means of access to them, are sold to advertisers” (Owen and Wildman, 1992; cited in Gandy, 2000).

2. 1. 2. 3 News frame

Potter (2014) indicates that the construction of news could be influenced by three types of influences shape: unavoidable constraints,

business environment and operating conventions.

The first type of influences shape on the construction of news are unavoidable constraints, consisting of deadlines, geographical focus and resource limitations, which limit the way journalists do their work. There is nothing that journalists can do to avoid these fundamental constraints, so they must accept those unavoidable constraints and try to work around them. Deadlines often prevent journalists from gathering all the facts and presenting a complete and accurate story about the event. Sometimes the journalists can not get all the information on the ongoing event and have no choice but to file a partial story. Under these circumstances, what is left out of the story may eventually prove to be more important than what is put into the partial story. Each news organization has its own focus on covering the events in its own locale which could make its audience informed of the most important events that have occurred within their city or region. Another form of geographical constraint refers to a belief that, even outside of a news organization's local area, certain parts of the world are more important or newsworthy than others. For example, with its tremendous economic development, the fast developing China, catches the eye of the world at present and occupies the foreign news' front-page frequently. Although the news-gathering departments of the major media organizations are very large and have considerable resources, there are never enough resources to be able to cover all the events that happen in a given day.

The second type of influences shape on the construction of news is the business environment, including the elements of commercialism, marketing perspective, organizational perspective, ownership, and branding. The commercial nature impels news organizations to be

in the business of constructing large audiences whom could be rent to advertisers. The larger the audience, the more revenue the news organization generates. The ultimate goal of news is a commercial one, which drives journalists to construct stories that will attract large audiences. The responsibility of journalists is to inform the public about the most important and significant events of the day so that people can use the given information to make their decisions. In contrast, to news organizations, the public is the most important. If the public is not being given the information it wants, it will not support the news organization with its time and money. From the marketing perspective, news workers including journalists need to pay careful attention to what kinds of stories and presentation formats can help the news organization to attract the maximum audience. “Today, the newsrooms of hundreds of U. S. newspapers, magazines, and television stations have embraced, to greater or lesser extents, this approach to making news. Typically a market-driven organization selects target markets for its product, identifies the wants and needs of potential customers in its target markets, and seeks to satisfy those wants and needs as efficiently as possible” (Beam, 2003). Also, Schudson (2003) reports that soft news increased from 35% in 1980 to 50% in 1998 in television networks, major news magazines, and leading national newspapers.

The third type of influences shape on the construction of news are operating conventions, including the elements of the use of sources, perception of values, hyperlocalism, and story formulas. Steele (1995) examined how television news organizations selected and used expert sources to interpret the news and found that news organizations chose expert sources that reflected journalists' understand-

ing of expertise. Experts were selected according to how well their specialized knowledge conformed to television's "operational bias" . Steele concluded that these processes undermine the ideals of balance and objectivity as well as severely limit how news is framed. Schudson (2003) observes, "Political institutions and media institutions are so deeply intertwined, so thoroughly engaged in a complex dance with each other, that it is not easy to distinguish where one begins and the other leaves off." Shoemaker and Reese (1996) say there are eight core values Americans hold which also are believed by journalists and news organizations. They try to tell stories that resonate with these values, which becomes one of the important characteristics in telling a good story and holding the audience's attention. These eight core values are individualism, moderatism, social order, leadership, ethnocentrism, altruistic democracy, responsible capitalism and small-town pastoralism.

Jensen (1997) says, "Only an informed electorate can achieve a fair and just society. The public has a right to know about issues that affect it and the press has a responsibility to keep the public well-informed about those issues." Jensen also argues that the media are biased in the way they select which events they choose to cover.

News is too diverse, fast-breaking, and unpredictable to be controlled by some sinister conservative eastern establishment media cabal. However, there is a congruence of attitudes and interests on the part of the owners and managers of mass media organizations. That non-conspiracy conspiracy, when combined with a variety of other factors, leads to the systematic failure of the news media to inform the public. While it is not an overt form of censorship, such as the kind we observe in some other societies, it is nonetheless real and of-

ten equally as dangerous to the public's well being (ibid.).

Bagdikian (1992) also argues, “there is a difference between partisanship and placing facts in a reasonably informed context of history and social circumstance. American journalism has not made a workable distinction between them”. When a story is reported with a lack of context, an significant form of bias would appear in journalism. The journalists' own opinions which might have been influenced by the context should be avoided when doing objective reporting. “There are powerful commercial pressures to remove social significance from standard American news. Informed social-economic context has unavoidable political implications which may disturb some in the audience whose world view differs” (ibid.).

Now that we have more information about news as a construction, the myth of objectivity, the bias in news and the importance of strong knowledge structure about media content, we still need to be media literate and master specific skills when confronting vast media information.

2.2 Media literacy

2.2.1 What is media literacy?

Over the years, many definitions and visions of media literacy have been created to reflect different points of view, different approaches and goals, and different audiences. The term “media literacy” is often used interchangeably with other terms related to media and media technologies. The National Association for Media Literacy Ed-

ucation (NAMLE) offers the following basic definitions to clarify what we mean when we talk about media, literacy, media literacy, media education and media literacy education^①.

- **Media** refers to all electronic or digital means and print or artistic visuals used to transmit messages.
- **Literacy** is the ability to encode and decode symbols and to synthesize and analyze messages.
- **Media literacy** is the ability to encode and decode the symbols transmitted via media and the ability to synthesize, analyze and produce mediated messages.
- **Media education** is the study of media, including “hands on” experiences and media production.
- **Media literacy education** is the educational field dedicated to teaching the skills associated with media literacy.

Within North America, media literacy is seen to consist of a series of communication competencies, including the ability to **access, analyze, evaluate,** and **communicate** information in a variety of forms, including print and non-print messages. Media literacy empowers people to be both critical thinkers and creative producers of an increasingly wide range of messages using image, language, and sound. It is the skillful application of literacy skills to media and technology messages. Media literacy represents a necessary, inevitable, and realistic response to the complex, ever-changing electronic environment and communication cornucopia that surround us.

The Association for Media Literacy in Canada defines that “Media literacy is the knowledge and skills necessary to understand and use

① Source: <http://namle.net/>

the codes and conventions of a wide variety of media forms and genres appropriately, effectively and ethically.”

“Media literacy is a set of perspectives that we actively use to expose ourselves to the mass media to interpret the meaning of the messages we encounter” (Potter, 2014). Stuart Ewen (2000) emphasized the point in comparing media literacy with traditional literacy. “Historically,” he wrote, “links between literacy and democracy are inseparable from the notion of an informed populace, conversant with the issues that touch upon their lives, enabled with tools that allow them to participate actively in public deliberation and social change ... Literacy was about crossing the lines that had historically separated men of ideas from ordinary people, about the enfranchisement of those who had been excluded from the compensations of citizenship.” To Ewen, and others committed to media literacy, media literacy represents no less than the means to full participation in the culture.

For want of a better term, media literacy is a form of critical literacy. It involves analysis, evaluation and critical reflection (Buckingham, 2003). It entails the acquisition of a “metalanguage”—that is, a means of describing the forms and structures of different modes of communication; and it involves a broader understanding of the social, economic and institutional contexts of communication, and how these affect people's experiences and practices (Luke, 2000).

2. 2. 2 Characteristics and skills of media literacy

Potter (2014) describes two most important characteristics of media literacy. First, it is a multidimensional concept with many interesting facets that needs to be viewed from many different perspectives to appreciate all it has to offer. Second, it is a continuum, not a category.

As Baran (2014) states, the elements of media literacy should include the following characteristics:

- (1) A critical thinking skill enabling audience members to develop independent judgments about media content.
- (2) An understanding of the process of mass communication.
- (3) An awareness of the impact of media on the individual and society.
- (4) Strategies for analyzing and discussing media messages.
- (5) An understanding of media content as a text that provides insight into our culture and our lives.
- (6) The ability to enjoy, understand, and appreciate media content.
- (7) Development of effective and responsible production skills.
- (8) An understanding of the ethical and moral obligations of media practitioners.

Today's information and entertainment technologies communicate to us through a powerful combination of words, images, and sounds. As such, we need to develop a wider set of literacy skills helping us to both comprehend the messages we receive and effectively utilize these tools to design and distribute our own messages. Being literate in a media age requires critical thinking skills that empower us as we make decisions, whether in the classroom, the living room, the workplace, the boardroom, or the voting booth. "Media literacy is a skill we take for granted, but like all skills, it can be improved. And if we consider how important the mass media are in creating and maintaining the culture that helps define us and our lives, it is a skill that must be improved" (ibid.).

Media literacy engages in the thoughtful understanding of all

texts in our media environment, including print, visual, audio, interactive, and digital texts. Media literate students are able to decode and comprehend texts, which allows them to analyze and evaluate texts for credibility, point of view, values, varying interpretation, and the context in which they are made, including institutional and economic contexts.

Potter (2014) defines the three building blocks of media literacy as personal locus, knowledge structures, and skills, which are necessary to build our wider set of perspectives on the media. Our personal locus provides mental energy and direction. Our knowledge structures are the organizations of what we have learned in five areas: “media effects, media content, media industries, the real world, and the self while our skills are the tools”.

As for media literacy skills, they are embedded throughout the NCSS (National Council for the Social Studies) curriculum standards such as identifying symbols, examining the environment, analyzing primary resources, considering economic concepts in a market economy, and exploring government and the role of media. Baran (2014) points out that media-literate consumption, however, requires a number of specific skills:

- (1) The ability and willingness to make an effort to understand content, to pay attention, and to filter out noise.

- (2) An understanding of and respect for the power of media messages.

- (3) The ability to distinguish emotional from reasoned reactions when responding to content and to act accordingly.

- (4) Development of heightened expectations of media content.

- (5) A knowledge of genre conventions and the ability to recog-

nize when they are being mixed.

(6) The ability to think critically about media messages, no matter how credible their sources.

(7) A knowledge of the internal language of various media and the ability to understand its effects, no matter how complex.

According to Potter (2014), there are also seven skills of media literacy: (1) Analysis—breaking down a message into meaningful elements; (2) Evaluation—judging the value of an element; the judgment is made by comparing a message element to some standard; (3) Grouping—determining which elements are alike in some way; determining how a group of elements are different from other groups of elements; (4) Induction—inferring a pattern across a small set of elements, then generalizing the pattern to all elements in the set; (5) Deduction—using general principles to explain particulars; (6) Synthesis—assembling elements into a new structure; and (7) Abstracting—creating a brief, clear, and accurate description capturing the essence of a message in a smaller number of words than the message itself.

This is especially true when students exist in an environment—their school, neighborhood, or online social circle—that does not include a regular diet of good global journalism. Students today face an information paradox. Their news frequently comes from friends' recommendations, social media, emails, etc. It is often unverified and presented without context. The Internet, especially the social web, has made information more available than it has ever been before. And even with good information, how can society move beyond a model that locks young people into the role of information consumers? The best learning happens when students are active contributors

to the process, what some educators call “owning” the learning. What might this look like in the context of global journalism?

The Center for Media Literacy advocates a philosophy of empowerment through education. This philosophy incorporates three intertwining concepts^②:

(1) *Media literacy is education for life in a global media world.*

For 500 years, since the invention of movable type, we have valued the ability to read and write as the primary means of communicating and understanding history, cultural traditions, political and social philosophy and the news of the day. In more recent times, traditional literacy skills ensured that individuals could participate fully as engaged citizens and functioning adults in society. Today families, schools and all community institutions share the responsibility for preparing young people for living and learning in a global culture that is increasingly connected through multi-media and influenced by powerful images, words and sounds.

(2) *The heart of media literacy is informed inquiry.*

Through a four-step “inquiry” process of **Awareness—Analysis—Reflection—Action**, media literacy helps young people acquire an empowering set of “navigational” skills which include the ability to:

- Access information from a variety of sources.
- Analyze and explore how messages are “constructed” Whether print, verbal, visual or multi-media.
- Evaluate media's explicit and implicit messages against one's own ethical, moral and/or democratic principles.

② Source: <http://www.medialit.org/>

- Express or create their own messages using a variety of media tools.
- Participate in a global media culture.

(3) *Media literacy is an alternative to censoring, boycotting or blaming “the media” .*

Deeply committed to freedom of expression, media literacy does not promote partisan agendas or political points of view. The power of media literacy is its ability to inspire independent thinking and foster critical analysis. The ultimate goal of media education is to make wise choices possible.

Potter (2014) divides the development of media literacy into eight stages: (1) acquiring fundamentals; (2) language acquisition; (3) narrative acquisition; (4) developing skepticism; (5) intensive development; (6) experiential exploring; (7) critical appreciation and (8) social responsibility. Each stage has its own characteristics.

At the stage of acquiring fundamentals, the characteristics are learning that there are human beings and other physical things apart from oneself and these things look different and serve different functions; to learn the meaning of facial expressions and natural sounds; to recognize shapes, form, size, color, movement, and spatial relations; rudimentary concept of time—regular patterns.

At the stage of language acquisition, the characteristics are to recognize speech sounds and attach meaning to them; to be able to reproduce speech sounds; to orient to visual and audio media; to make emotional and behavior responses to music and sounds; to recognize certain characters in visual media and follow their movement.

At the stage of narrative acquisition, the characteristics are to develop understanding of differences by comparing fiction with non-

fiction, advertisements with entertainment, real with make-believe; understand how to connect plot elements by time sequencing and motive-action-consequence.

At the stage of developing skepticism, the characteristics are that discount claims made in ads; to sharpen differences between likes and dislikes for shows, characters, and actions; to make fun of certain characters even though those characters are not presented as foils in their shows.

At the stage of intensive development, the characteristics are that strong motivation to seek information on certain topics; developing a detailed set of information on particular topics (sports, politics, etc.); high awareness of utility of information and quick facility in processing information judged to be useful.

At the stage of experiential exploring, the characteristics are seeking different forms of content and narratives and to focus on searching for surprises and new emotional, moral, and aesthetic reactions.

At the stage of critical appreciation, the characteristics are accepting messages on their own terms and then evaluating them within that sphere; developing very broad and detailed understanding of the historical, economic, political, and artistic contexts of message systems; able to make subtle comparisons and contrasts among many different message elements simultaneously; able to construct a summary judgment about the overall strengths and weaknesses of a message.

At the stage of social responsibility, the characteristics are taking a moral stand that certain messages are more constructive for society than others; this is a multidimensional perspective based on thorough analyses of the media landscape; recognizing that one's own

individual decisions affect society—no matter how minutely; recognizing that there are some actions an individual can take to make a constructive impact on society.

2.2.3 Critical thinking

Twenty-first century skills are a top priority of the Obama administration's education agenda in the United States, and in the first chapter of its National Educational Technology Plan^③ (2010), it declares that schools must weave — 21st century competencies into all content areas; these include critical thinking, problem-solving, collaboration and multimedia communication. “We want to develop inquisitive, creative, resourceful thinkers; informed citizens; effective problem-solvers; groundbreaking pioneers; and visionary leaders. We want to foster the excellence that flows from the ability to use today's information, tools, and technologies effectively and a commitment to lifelong learning.”

As one of the four 21st century skills^④—creativity, critical thinking, communication and collaboration—known as 4Cs in the US, critical thinking is of great importance undoubtedly. Critical thinking^⑤ is a habit of mind characterized by the comprehensive exploration of issues, ideas, artifacts, and events before accepting or formulating an opinion or conclusion. “Every educator will concede that critical thinking aims at making wise decisions and coming to correct conclusions, and not being waylaid by temptation, emotion, greed, irrele-

③ Source: <http://tech.ed.gov/>

④ Source: <http://www.edleader21.com/>

⑤ Source: <http://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/critical-thinking>

vant considerations, stupidity, bias, or other similar things” (Moore and Parker, 2012).

The world is changing fast and new global realities are swiftly working their way into the deepest structures of our daily lives: political, economic, social, cultural, historical and environmental realities, which have profound implications for thinking and learning. These realities are becoming increasingly complicated and many represent significant dangers and threats to us. The cultivation of core intellectual virtues are required in critical thinking, such as intellectual humility, perseverance, integrity and responsibility. Traditionally our thinking has been designed for routine, for habit and for fixed procedure. The world in which we now live requires that we routinely rethink our decisions and regularly reevaluate the way we work and live.

Though critical thinking is universally recognized as important in schooling at all levels, and though it is essential to the creation of a fair-minded critical society, few teachers have a clear conception of what it is or how to foster it. Moore and Parker (2012) quotes a list of skills^⑥ in critical thinking which has been put forward by the Collegiate Learning Assessment (CLA) Project of the Council for Aid to Education. In question form, here is what the council came up with:

How well does the student

- determine what information is or is not pertinent;
- distinguish between rational claims and emotional ones;
- separate fact from opinion;
- recognize the ways in which evidence might be limited or com-

⑥ Source: http://www.aacu.org/peerreview/pr_sp07_analysis1.cfm

promised;

- spot deception and holes in the arguments of others;
- present his /her own analysis of the data or information;
- recognize logical flaws in arguments;
- draw connections between discrete sources of data and information;
- attend to contradictory, inadequate, or ambiguous information;
- construct cogent arguments rooted in data rather than opinion;
- select the strongest set of supporting data;
- avoid overstated conclusions;
- identify holes in the evidence and suggest additional information to collect;
- recognize that a problem may have no clear answer or single solution;
- propose other options and weigh them in the decision;
- consider all stakeholders or affected parties in suggesting a course of action;
- articulate the argument and the context for that argument;
- correctly and precisely use evidence to defend the argument;
- logically and cohesively organize the argument;
- avoid extraneous elements in an argument's development;
- present evidence in an order that contributes to a persuasive argument?

The critical thinking VALUE rubrics^⑦ were developed by teams of faculty experts representing colleges and universities across the United

⑦ Source: <http://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/critical-thinking>

States. “The rubrics articulate fundamental criteria for each learning outcome, with performance descriptors demonstrating progressively more sophisticated levels of attainment. The rubrics are intended for institutional-level use in evaluating and discussing student learning, not for grading.” The Center and Foundation for Critical Thinking, which does not just advocate educational and social reform based on critical thinking, but develop and build practical alternatives, argues that it is our nature to think and much of our thinking is biased, distorted, partial, uninformed, or downright prejudiced and if we want to think well, we must understand at least the rudiments of thought, the most basic structures out of which all thinking is made. According to it, eight basic structures are present in all thinking: whenever we think, we think for a purpose within a point of view based on assumptions leading to implications and consequences. We use concepts, ideas and theories to interpret data, facts, and experiences in order to answer questions, solve problems, and resolve issues. Thinking then generates purposes; raises questions; uses information; utilizes concepts; makes inferences; makes assumptions; generates implications; and embodies a point of view (see Appendix 1)[®].

2.3 Media literacy education

In the twenty-first century, participatory media education and civic education are unavoidably connected. As long as media continues to play a vital role in our society, the importance and significance of media literacy education will not be replaceable and dispensable. The

[®] Source: <http://www.criticalthinking.org/ctmodel/logic-model1.htm>

National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS) (2009) in the United States recognized media literacy as being so core to its curriculum standards that it adopted a statement acknowledging that

we live in a multimedia age where the majority of information people receive comes less often from print sources and more typically from highly constructed visual images, complex sound arrangements, and multiple media formats. The multimedia age requires new skills for accessing, analyzing, evaluating, creating, and distributing messages within a digital, global, and democratic society.
(“Rationale”)

2. 3. 1 What is media literacy education?

As swift changes take place in technology, media and society, the development of new pedagogy is urgently required to empower students to adequately read media messages and produce media themselves. Teaching students to think critically about the content and the form of mediated messages is an essential requirement for social studies education in this century. Teachers have the responsibilities to ask themselves what they should do to navigate students through the emerging complex media environment. Media literacy education is concerned with teaching and learning about the media. It should not be confused with teaching through or with the media (Buckingham, 2003). Media education is about developing young people's critical and creative abilities.

The NAMLE in the US defines that “Media literacy education is the process of teaching how to access, analyze, evaluate, create, and communicate using media in all of its forms.” Media literacy engages in the thoughtful understanding of all texts in our media environ-

ment, including print, visual, audio, interactive, and digital texts. Jenkins (2006) suggested that media educators help young people “to think of themselves as cultural producers and participants and not simply as consumers, critical or otherwise” . Media literate students are able to decode and comprehend texts, which allows them to analyze and evaluate texts for credibility, point of view, values, varying interpretation, and the context in which they are made, including institutional and economic contexts.

Media literacy includes the analysis of ideology and power as students learn how media are used to position audiences and frame public opinion. It is “the knowledge and skills learners acquire” which necessarily involves “reading” and “writing” media, therefore, media literacy education aims to develop both critical understanding and active participation, which enables young people not only to interpret and make informed judgments as consumers of media, but also become producers of media in their own right (Buckingham, 2003)

2. 3. 2 The purpose and “key concepts” of media literacy education

“The purpose of media literacy education is to help individuals of all ages to develop the habits of inquiry and skills of expression that they need to be critical thinkers, effective communicators, and active citizens in today's world” (NAMLE, see Appendix 2)^⑨ . It is clear that the “habits of inquiry” and “skills of expression” are the two key points in the process of media literacy education that need to be integrated into our teaching. It also goes well with the six Core Principles

⑨ Source: National Association for Media Literacy Education.

in NAMLE¹ s *Core Principles of Media Literacy in the United States* ;

(1) Media Literacy Education requires active inquiry and critical thinking about the messages we receive and create.

(2) Media Literacy Education expands the concept of literacy to include all forms of media (i. e. , reading and writing).

(3) Media Literacy Education builds and reinforces skills for learners of all ages. Like print literacy, those skills necessitate integrated, interactive, and repeated practice.

(4) Media Literacy Education develops informed, reflective and engaged participants essential for a democratic society.

(5) Media Literacy Education recognizes that media are a part of culture and function as agents of socialization.

(6) Media Literacy Education affirms that people use their individual skills, beliefs and experiences to construct their own meanings from media messages.

As discussed above, many media literacy educators have defined their task primarily in terms about media, with a heavy emphasis on analyzing and critiquing media messages. In fact, it is far from meeting the standards of media literacy education. Developing habits of inquiry into the media and acquiring skills of media production to express ourselves are not easy. Analysis of media content is combined with inquiry into the medium. This approach is analytic and skill-based. Thus media literacy integrates the process of critical inquiry with the creation of media as students examine, create, and disseminate their own alternative images, sounds, and thoughts. This book will lay its emphasis on offering perspectives and methodologies to foster competence in the “reading media” part, whereas, the “writing

media” part will not be included.

As Elizabeth Thoman and Tessa Jolls (2005) have noted, “To become media literate is not to memorize facts or statistics about the media, but rather, to learn to raise the right questions about what you are watching, reading, or listening to.” In 1989, the British Film Institute (BFI) posed a set of categories called “signpost questions” (Bazalgette, 1989):

- WHO is communicating with whom? (AGENCIES)
- WHAT type of text is it? (CATEGORIES)
- HOW is it produced? (TECHNOLOGIES)
- HOW do we know what it means? (LANGUAGES)
- WHO receives it and what sense do they make of it? (AUDIENCES)
- HOW does it present its subject? (REPRESENTATIONS)

These questions continue to serve as a core around which media literacy education is constructed. However, it seems that these questions designed for traditional literacy are no longer adequate for a complex and constantly changing media world. To keep in pace with the development of new media technologies, more “key questions and concepts” for media literacy education are proposed.

There are various versions of the “key concepts”, several of which are embodied in curriculum documents around the world. Buckingham (2003) employs four key concepts in media literacy education: **Production**, **Language**, **Representation** and **Audience**.

(1) Studying media **production** means looking at:

- Technologies. What technologies are used to produce and distribute media texts? What difference do they make to the product?

- Professional practices. Who makes media texts? Who does what and how do they work together?
- The industry. Who owns the companies that buy and sell media? How do they make a profit?
- Connections between media. How do companies sell the same products across different media?
- Regulation. Who controls the production and distribution of media? Are there laws about this, and how effective are they?
- Circulation and distribution. How do texts reach their audiences? How much choice and control do audiences have?
- Access and participation. Whose voices are heard in the media? Whose are excluded, and why?

(2) Studying media **languages** means looking at:

- Meanings. How do media use different forms of language to convey ideas or meanings?
- Conventions. How do these uses of language become familiar and generally accepted?
- Codes. How are the grammatical “rules” of media established? What happens when they are broken?
- Genres. How do these conventions and codes operate in different types of media texts—such as news or horror?
- Chokes. What are the effects of choosing certain forms of language—such as a particular type of camera shot?
- Combinations. How is meaning conveyed through the combination or sequencing of images, sounds or words?
- Technologies. How do technologies affect the meanings that can be created?

(3) Studying media **representations** means looking at:

- Realism. Is this text intended to be realistic? Why do some texts seem more realistic than others?
- Telling the truth. How do media claim to tell the truth about the world? How do they try to seem authentic?
- Presence and absence. What is included and excluded from the media world? Who speaks, and who is silenced?
- Bias and objectivity. Do media texts support particular views about the world? Do they put across moral or political values?
- Stereotyping. How do media represent particular social groups? Are those representations accurate?
- Interpretations. Why do audiences accept some media representations as true, or reject others as false?
- Influences. Do media representations affect our views of particular social groups or issues?

(4) Studying media **audiences** means looking at:

- Targeting. How are media aimed at particular audiences? How do they try to appeal to them?
- Address. How do the media speak to audiences? What assumptions do media producers make about audiences?
- Circulation. How do media reach audiences? How do audiences know what is available?
- Uses. How do audiences use media in their daily lives? What are their habits and patterns of use?
- Making sense. How do audiences interpret media? What meanings do they make?
- Pleasures. What pleasures do audiences gain from the media? What do they like or dislike?
- Social differences. What is the role of gender, social class, age

and ethnic background in audiencebehaviour?

Canada's Association for Media Literacy posed *Eight Key Concepts of Media Literacy* as follows. Each is accompanied by a brief discussion and questions that might help teachers operationalize the statements for student discussion (see Appendix 3)^⑩ .

- (1) Media texts construct reality.
- (2) Media texts construct versions of reality.
- (3) Audiences negotiate meaning.
- (4) Media messages have economic implications.
- (5) Media texts communicate values messages.
- (6) Media texts communicate political and social messages.
- (7) Form and content are closely related in each medium.
- (8) Each medium has a unique aesthetic form.

NAMLE (2007) developed a set of key questions to ask when analyze media messages (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Key Questions to Ask When Analyzing Media Messages^⑪

KEY QUESTIONS TO ASK WHEN ANALYZING MEDIA MESSAGES		
AUDIENCE & AUTHORSHIP	AUTHORSHIP	Who made this message?
	PURPOSE	Why was this made? Who is the target audience (and how do you know)?
	ECONOMICS	Who paid for this?
	IMPACT	Who might benefit from this message? Who might be harmed by it? Why might this message matter to me?
	RESPONSE	What kinds of actions might I take in response to this message?

^⑩ Source: <http://www.aml.ca/keyconceptsofmedialiteracy/>.

^⑪ Source: <http://www.namle.net/core-principles/>.

KEY QUESTIONS TO ASK WHEN ANALYZING MEDIA MESSAGES		
MESSAGES & MEANINGS	CONTENT	<p>What is this about (and what makes you think that)?</p> <p>What ideas, values, information, and/or points of view are overt? Implied?</p> <p>What is left out of this message that might be important to know?</p>
	TECHNIQUES	<p>What techniques are used?</p> <p>Why were those techniques used?</p> <p>How do they communicate the message?</p>
	INTERPRETATIONS	<p>How might different people understand this message differently?</p> <p>What is my interpretation of this and what do I learn about myself from my reaction or interpretation?</p>
REPRESENTATIONS & REALITY	CONTEXT	<p>When was this made?</p> <p>Where or how was it shared with the public?</p>
	CREDIBILITY	<p>Is this fact, opinion, or something else?</p> <p>How credible is the (and what makes you think that)?</p> <p>What are the sources of the information, ideas, or assertions?</p>

CML's five key questions and core concepts (Q/TIPS)¹² is a set of five validated Core Concepts, with questions for both deconstruction and construction of media. These questions are designed to ignite a process of inquiry, and to help students gain an automatic, internalized process for thinking critically about any media message, anywhere, anytime. It serves as a “metaframe” that provides an entry point into critical thinking about any subject, in any media channel—whether print, video or internet. In 20 minutes to an hour, teachers can easily develop activities and lessons that connect CML's metaframe to any curricular content.

¹² See Center for Media Literacy, <http://www.medialit.org>.

Because this metaframe is used consistently across all curricular areas, students master a process of inquiry that provides them with an automatic way to analyze any text, regardless of the classroom setting or the media they are using.

Although all these various “key questions” or “key concepts” are put forward by different professional scholars, educators or organizations all over the world who/which devoted to media literacy education, they are largely identical but with minor differences and extremely functional and practical when applied in critically deconstructing media messages.

2. 3. 3 Teaching media literacy

As the US Department of Education (2010) puts it: “Whether the domain is English language arts, mathematics, sciences, social studies, history, art, or music, 21st-century competencies and expertise such as critical thinking, complex problem solving, collaboration, and multimedia communication should be woven into all content areas.” National Council for the Social Studies (2009) in the United States provides us with two directions in teaching media literacy within a social sciences context: a horizontal expansion and a vertical deepening.

The horizontal motion entails broadening the definition of what is considered acceptable text to include multiple ways people read, write, view, and create information and messages. This notion includes popular culture, advertising, photographs, maps, text messages, movies, video games, Internet, all sorts of hand-held devices and information communication technologies as well as print. Along with analysis, media literacy involves production as students learn to create messages with different media and technology.

Teaching media literacy also requires a vertical movement to help students deepen their questioning of the relationships between information, knowledge, and power. Meanings are not only created inside someone's head; they are always dependent on historical, social, political, economic, and cultural contexts in which the text is both created and received. In addition, people negotiate meanings similarly or differently depending on the experiences, values, feelings, and many other influences shaping their group and individual identities.

There are many opportunities to bring media texts into instruction. The types of media texts that teachers should consider include, but are not limited to, newspapers and magazines (both in print and in e-formats), television video, radio, music, advertising, film, and the Internet. These texts provide ample opportunity for critical inquiry. Media education built on critical inquiry encourages students to ask probing questions such as:

- What social, cultural, historical, and political contexts are shaping the message and the meaning I am making of it?
- How and why was the message constructed?
- How could different people understand this information differently?
- Whose perspective, values and ideology are represented and whose are missing?
- Who or what group benefits and/or is hurt by this message?

The following are examples of media literacy activities in social studies classrooms:

- Students compare and contrast the benefits and limitations of different types of maps before creating their own maps highlighting different geographic regions.
- Students analyze newspaper articles about historic events that

affected their community and collaboratively create a wiki to share their findings.

- Students produce a video about their community with original interviews and share their video online as an active form of public civic participation.
- Students study the electoral process through analyzing mainstream media coverage of presidential campaigns and then create their own public awareness campaign about civic participation for youth.

Teaching media literacy aims to foster active inquiry habits and abilities to express in the media environment. This book suggests integration strategies and interdisciplinary approaches in daily teaching. For example, teachers are encouraged to use “news reports or stories” as a means to link politics, economics, history, culture, etc. with journalism and communication. Jarman and McClune (2007) argue strongly for using “science in the news” as a means of developing interdisciplinary approaches linking English Language Arts and Science. There are many opportunities for cross-curricular collaboration among different disciplines. The teaching of deconstructing news message could be done in the combination of discourse analysis and media studies. In the next chapter, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) will be introduced as a perspective in foreign language teaching/learning as well as an approach to media studies.

2.4 Summary

In the first part of the chapter, the definition of media is present-

edalong with the elaboration on the specific media forms—book and internet, which have a great significance to us. Then the notion of news, news value and news frame are introduced and discussed, especially the nature of news and the three types of influences shape on the construction of news.

The second part of the chapter presents with a definition of media literacy as a perspective from which we expose ourselves to the media and interpret the meaning of the messages we encounter. The characteristics, skills, development stages of media literacy are respectively discussed. Critical thinking, as an indispensable part when applying media literacy into daily practices, has been elaborated on its definition, the importance as one of the four 21st skills, the VALUE rubrics and eight elements. People are required to be highly media literate, which could make us be able to see much more in a given message and be more aware of the levels of meaning in a vast of information streams nowadays.

The third part of this chapter elaborates the definition, purpose and several “key concepts” of media literacy education, and briefly mentions the integration strategies and interdisciplinary approaches in teaching media literacy. No matter what the teaching content is, inquiry-based media literacy fosters active learning and engaged discussion.

Tomedia literacy education, the ability to deconstruct a range of media forms and content is absolutely central. However, teachers need to shift the focus from teaching about media to framing media literacy education as a rich and integrated process in which both students and teachers should learn how to be literate in a media world. The students are required to develop a desire to question and communicate effectively in various media modalities as well.

Chapter 3

Critical discourse analysis

3.1 Critical discourse analysis

3.1.1 News discourse studies

It is an unarguable fact that media is exerting greater influence on the lives of people especially in modern “information society” . As van Dijk (1998b) points out, media discourse is the main source of people's knowledge, attitudes and ideologies, both for the elites and the ordinary citizens.

The mass media have become one of the principal means through which we gain access to large part of our information about the world, as well as to much of our entertainment. Because of this, they are a powerful site for the production and circulation of social meanings, i. e. to a great extent the media decide the significance of

things that happen in the world for any given culture, society or social group. The language used by the media to represent particular social and political groups, and to describe newsworthy events, tends to provide the dominant ways available for the rest of us to talk about those groups and events (Linda Thomas, 2004) .

Four main reasons of the interest in studying media discourse are summarized by Bell and Garrett (1998): Firstly, media are a rich source of readily accessible data for research and teaching. Secondly, media usage influences and represents people's use of and attitudes towards language in a speech community. Thirdly (and related), media use can tell us a great deal about social meanings and stereotypes projected through language and communication ... Fourthly (and again related), the media reflect and influence the formation and expression of culture, politics and social life. Similarly, Fairclough (1989) claims "Mass-media discourse is interesting because the nature of the power relations enacted in it is often not clear, and there are reasons for seeing it as involving hidden power relations." All these shows that news discourse provides us with information and enjoyment, at the same time, it shapes our perception, behavior and value.

Content analysis and critical analysis are two important parts of news discourse studies. Content analysis of hard news is prevalent from 1930s to 1960s, before the emergence of Critical Discourse Analysis. This kind of analysis is considered to be an interdisciplinary method for the objective, replicable and quantitative description of news texts. As van Dijk (1988b) puts it;

Content analysis aimed at a methodologically adequate description of selected properties of such media messages with the primary goal to be able to make contextual inference. The adequacy of this approach resided more in the reliability of scoring categories and in

the sophisticated nature of the statistical treatment of the results than in systematic analysis and understanding of the media messages in their own right.

Later, Critical Discourse Analysis has become the standard framework for studying news texts. In its approaches to hard news studies, CDA relies on analyzing semantic, pragmatic and inter-textual features of discourse to account for the linguistic production of ideology, particularly as it relates to dominance (vanDijk, 1993). The scholars of this approach consider that there exists unequal power relations in the economic and political contexts, which will influence news production and consumption practices. They try to reveal the hidden unequal power relations in news discourse via this approach (Fowler, 1991; van Dijk, 1993; Fairclough, 1995b).

To avoid ambiguity, we refer to any texts analyzed in thisbook as news discourse, which is of its unique availability and accessibility. Besides, news reporting here is limited to the report of an event, a person or a concept, which is of news value via the medium of newspaper. We have to admit that newspaper is the most direct and critical medium that influences our daily social practice. In “Opinions and Ideologies in the Press”, Teun van Dijk (1998a) gives some suggestions for ideological analysis of media discourse: (1) examine the context of the discourse, (2) analyze which group, power relations and conflicts are involved, (3) look for positive and negative opinions about Us and Them, (4) spell out the presupposed and the implied, and (5) examine all formal structures that emphasize polarized group opinions.

Fairclough (1995b) summarizes the following principles for a critical analysis of the media discourse especially that of the press:

- Analysis of discourse should focus on the manifestation of social, cultural, and political changes in media discourse practices.
- Analyzing media texts should include analyzing both language and texture plus visual images.
- Examining practices of text production and text consumption should be a part of discourse analysis.
- Relations of power and ideology, as a part of the wider socio-cultural practices of the media, should be included in discourse analysis.
- Analysis of text should involve both linguistic analysis and intertextual analysis.
- Texts should be perceived as multifunctional and analyzed accordingly.
- Linguistic analysis should include all aspects of both language (grammar, phonology, lexicon, metaphor) and macrostructure or schemata in van Dijk's terms.
- Media texts should be conceived in a dialectical relationship with society and culture: “texts are socio-culturally shaped but they also constitute society and culture in ways which may be transformative as well as reproductive” .

3. 1. 2 Notion of CDA

Discourse is one of the most frequently-used words in academia today. Theoretically and practically, the field of Discourse Analysis (DA) is rather diverse (Blommaert, 2005; Brown and Yule, 1983; Cameron, 2001; Phillips and Jørgensen, 2002; Weiss and Wodak,

2003; Wodak and Meyer, 2001). Cameron (2001) suggests that “Linguists treat language as a ‘system of systems’, with each system having its own characteristic forms of structure or organisation. ... If discourse analysis deals with ‘language above the sentence’, this means that it looks for patterns (structure, organisation) in units which are larger, more extended, than one sentence.” Brown and Yule (1983) go as far as to state,

... the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms are designed to serve in human affairs.

Cameron (2001) suggests that theorists who adopt this definition of discourse are interested in “what and how language communicates when it is used purposefully in particular instances and contexts”. Discourse exists in a kind of dialogue with society: “language simultaneously reflects reality (‘the way things are’) and constructs (construes) it to be a certain way” (Gee, 1999). Accordingly, language represents and contributes to the production and reproduction of social reality.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which is also known as Critical Linguistics (CL) or Critical Language Study (CLS), is a branch of instrumental linguistics, and was first proposed by Roger Fowler in the book *Language and Control*. The term “Critical Linguistics” appeared for the first time in Fowler et al. (1979) and in Kress and Hodge (1979) (Wodak, 1989).

The overall aim of CDA “has been to link linguistic analysis to social analysis” (Woods and Kroger, 2000). In response, CDA “seeks to have an effect on social practice and social relationships” (Titscher et al., 2000), particularly on relationships of disempowerment, domi-

nance, prejudice and/or discrimination. Critical analysis of this kind may be focused “at different levels of abstraction from the particular event; it may involve its more immediate situational context, the wider context of institutional practices the event is embedded within, or the yet wider frame of the society and the culture” (Fairclough, 1995a). Titscher et al. (2000), using the work of Wodak (1996), summarize the general principles of CDA as follows:

- CDA is concerned with social problems. It is not concerned with language or language use per se, but with the linguistic character of social and cultural processes and structures.
- Power-relations have to do with discourse, and CDA studies both power in discourse and power over discourse.
- Society and culture are dialectically related to discourse: society and culture are shaped by discourse, and at the same time constitute discourse. Every single instance of language use reproduces or transforms society and culture, including power relations.
- Language use may be ideological. To determine this it is necessary to analyse texts to investigate their interpretation, reception and social effects.
- Discourses are historical and can only be understood in relation to their context. At a metatheoretical level this corresponds to the approach of Wittgenstein, according to which the meaning of an utterance rests in its usage in a specific situation.
- Discourse analysis is interpretative and explanatory. Critical analysis implies a systematic methodology and a relationship between the text and its social conditions, ideologies and power-relations.

In seeking to accomplish these goals, CDA investigates, and aims at illustrating, “a relationship between the text and its social conditions, ideologies and power-relations” (ibid.).

The development of CDA has experienced several periods since the late 1970s: the sprouting period (1976 – 1979), the stagnation period (1979 – 1985), the self-reflection period (1985 – 1987) and the new development period (1988 and after) (Chen Zhongzhu, 1995). CDA emerged in the late 1980s as a program development in European discourse studies spearheaded by Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak, Teun van Dijk, and other scholars. Since then, it has become one of the most influential and visible branches of Discourse Analysis. As Fairclough (1989) puts it: “CLS analyses social interactions in a way which focuses upon their linguistic elements, and which sets out to show up their generally hidden determinants in the system of social relationships, as well as hidden effects they may have upon that system.”

Critical Discourse Analysis is a cross-discipline subject, with functionalism and Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis as its theoretical basis and Western Marxism of Frankfurt School as its philosophical grounding. Here, it is necessary to give a brief introduction to Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, developed by the anthropological linguist Edward Sapir and his student Benjamin Lee Whorf. As Hu Zhuanglin (2001) puts it:

What this hypothesis suggests is like this: our language helps mould our way of thinking and, consequently, different languages may probably express our unique ways of understanding the world. Following this argument, two important points could be captured in this theory. On the one hand, language may determine our thinking patterns; on the other, similarity between languages is relative, the

greater their structural differentiation is, the more diverse their conceptualization of the world will be. For this reason, this hypothesis has alternatively been referred to as linguistic determinism and linguistic relativity.

The philosophical roots of CDA can be traced as far back as to Karl Marx, who argues that ideology dominates people's psychology and hinders human's self-liberation. It is mainly via Althusser and Gramsci, whose ideas on social theory and organization and theories of ideology have had a tremendous impact on later-day social thinkers. They stressed the significance of ideology for modern societies to sustain and reinforce their social structures and relations. As a pre-eminent manifestation of this socially constitutive ideology, language becomes the primary instrument through which ideology is transmitted, enacted and reproduced (Foucault, 1972). And the goal of CDA is in general terms consciousness-raising with the purpose of emancipating the oppressed people by foregrounding the ideology and the implicit power relations hidden behind their everyday discourse (Fairclough and Wodak, 1997).

In Wodak's (2001) words, "CDA is not concerned with evaluating what is right or wrong. CDA should try to make choices at each point in the research itself, and should make these choices transparent. It should also justify theoretically why certain interpretations of discursive events seem more valid than others." Thus, CDA may be defined as "fundamentally concerned with analyzing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control as manifested in language" (ibid.).

In most cases, CDA takes the part of the unprivileged and tries to analyze the linguistic means used by the privileged in their efforts

to stabilize or even to intensify iniquities in society (Fairclough, 1989). CDA aims to “investigate critically social inequality as it is expressed, signaled, constituted, legitimized and so on by language use (or in discourse)” (Wodak, 2001).

Nowadays the term CDA is used “to refer more specifically to the critical linguistic approach of scholars who find the larger discursive unit of text to be the basic unit of communication” (ibid.). Here, the notion of “critical” can be basically understood as “having distance to the data, embedding the data in the social, taking a political stance explicitly, and a focus on self-reflection as scholars doing research” (ibid). CDA should be essentially diverse and multidisciplinary. As van Dijk (2001) puts it:

CDA is not a direction of research among others, like TG grammar, or systemic linguistics, nor a subdiscipline of discourse analysis. It is not a method, nor a theory that simply can be applied to social problems. CDA can be conducted in, and combined with any approach and subdiscipline in humanities and the social sciences. Rather, CDA is a critical perspective on doing scholarship: it is, so to speak, discourse analysis ‘with an attitude’. It focuses on social problems, and especially on the role of discourse in the production and reproduction of power abuse or domination.

3. 1. 3 Previous studies on CDA

The following part is a brief review of the contributions of the major CDA researchers abroad and at home.

In 1979, Roger Fowler and his collaborators published the book entitled *Language and Control*, which was one of the first studies in the new critical paradigm in linguistics and discourse studies. In

1991, Fowler expounded the framework of CDA and applied it to specific news texts in the book entitled *Language in the News*. He holds that language use is not neutral. Any form of language choice incorporates ideological meanings. His later work shows that how tools provided by standard linguistic theories can be employed to reveal the linguistic structures of power in texts. Drawing on Functional Linguistics, he studies transitivity, transformation, modality, lexical classification and coherence in news discourses.

Gunter Kress is also an originator of CDA. He elaborates the basic assumption of CDA in *Language and Control*. However, he concentrates on the extension of CDA to new areas of research in his later development. He researches the interrelationship between discourse, text and readers and argues that the foundational issue in CDA is the social production of the sign. As to media research from the perspective of CDA, Kress focuses on the “political economy” of representational media.

In the book entitled *Language and Power*, Norman Fairclough (1989) who makes a great contribution to the development of CDA, proposed the three-dimensional framework of analysis. The three procedures are description, interpretation and explanation. He has written extensively on news discourse and also draws on Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar. Fairclough (1992, 1995a) pays special attention to discourse representation, a form of intertextuality, in news discourse.

Van Dijk advances the development of CDA by his analysis of news discourses in many languages. In the 1980s, he presented a new interdisciplinary theory about news in the press and applied his theory to describing and investigating the reproduction of ethnic prejudices in

the media, the abuse of power and the reproduction of inequality through ideology. In his studies, he tries to show that we should not take news discourse as the end product. In the study of news discourse, the news reports themselves as well as the reader's understanding of the news reports need to be investigated as dynamic processes. His analysis of news reports takes place at two levels: micro-structure and macro-structure.

ChenZhongzhu, a professor in Beijing University, is one important scholar who has introduced CDA into China. In the article "An Introduction and Evaluation to Critical Linguistics" published in 1995, he discussed the five development periods of CDA since its birth to the latest development tendency. In another article "Text and Ideology: Critical Discourse Analysis", Chen analyzed two news reports from two British newspapers using transitivity and modality analysis, speech reporting and thematic choice based on the three metafunctions proposed in Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar.

Xin Bin is another important scholar in the field of CDA in China. His article "Language, Power and Ideology: Critical Linguistics", published in 1996, is an introductory article to critical linguistics, which explains the birth and development of CDA, its philosophical and theoretical basis, and its analytic tools. The papers by him from 1996 to 2005 also apply CDA to the real discourses to show how language, power and ideology perform in different discourses. Then he lays his emphasis on intertextuality analysis and he has proposed a comparative study of news reports. That is, news reports should be compared synchronically and diachronically to reveal the ideology concealed in them.

Besides ChenZhongzhu and Xin Bin, there are other scholars in

China like Dai Weihua, Ji Yuhua, Wu Zongjie, Shi Xu and so on, to name just a few, who have introduced the latest theory of CDA and made practical analysis of public discourses via the relevant analytical tools of CDA.

From the above review, we can see there are many scholars whose studies have made profound contributions to the development of CDA abroad and at home. We can also find that Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar takes an important role in Critical Discourse Analysis. By using it, we can analyze the relationships between language and ideology within social contexts. This study primarily aims to integrate CDA into daily news studies and foreign language teaching/learning, which could provide a large interdisciplinary platform for the implementation of media literacy education.

It also intends to carry out a critical discourse analysis of disaster news reports within the theoretical framework provided by Fairclough, who draws upon Systemic-Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1985), which analyzes language as shaped (even in its grammar) by the social functions it has come to serve.

3.1.4 Language, media and society

The study also aims to examine the language use or discourse of media. Language is key to human activity. It is through the use of language that we grant meaning to our actions; and it is through our use of language that we can intend to remove meaning from our actions. Language is social. As Blommaert (2005) puts it:

... there is no such thing as "non-social" language... Any utterance produced by people will be, for instance, an instance of oral speech, spoken with a particular accent, gendered and reflective of

age and social position, tied to a particular situation or domain, and produced in a certain stylistically or generically identifiable format.

CDA regards “language as social practice” (Fairclough and Wodak, 1997) and “takes a particular interest in the relation between language and power” (Wodak, 2001). Language is produced by society and (through the effect of language use on people) it goes on to help recreate it. Language first represents social realities and second contributes to the production and reproduction of social reality or social life. Critical approaches, which differ from non-critical approaches, not only describe discursive practice, but also show how discourse is shaped by relations of power and ideologies, and constructive effects discourses has upon social identities, social relations and systems of knowledge and belief, neither of which is normally apparent to discourse participations (Fairclough, 1992). Moreover, “‘critical’ is used in the special sense of aiming to show up connections which may be hidden from people—such as the connections between language, power and ideology” (Fairclough, 1989). As a genre of media communication, news is so powerful. The power of news language to do things and the way that social power is indexed and represented in news language are particularly significant to consider when studying the news discourse. Through its power, it can help to shape our social reality and reinforce beliefs. It can shape people's opinions not only of the world but also of their place and role in the world.

The motion behind CDA is to explore the ideology in language through drawing upon the systemic-functional linguistic theory associated with Halliday (1985) who advocates that the choice of linguistic signs is decided by social political and ideological context (ibid).

Influenced by Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis, and Halliday' s Functional Linguistics, Critical Linguistics developed their own theory of language. They stress the dialectical relationships between language and social structure, and claim that a theory of language that makes no allowance for the social determination of linguistic practice is obviously deficient and a theory that ignores individual difference in linguistic practice is also deficient (Kress, 1985).

In accordance with their conception of the relationships between language, ideology and power, critical linguists hold a discursive view of language, which includes the following main points (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002):

- Language is not a reflection of a pre-existing reality.
- Language is structured in patterns of discourse-there is not just one general system of meaning as inSaussurian structuralism but a series of systems or discourses, whereby meanings change from discourse to discourse.
- These discursive patterns are maintained and transformed in discursive practices.
- The maintenance and transformation of the patterns should therefore be explored through analysis of the specific contexts in which language is in action.

Thus language is a social semiotics, and linguistic activity is a kind of social behavior. Linguistic structures affect their user' s cognitive perception, and are influenced at the same time by their user' s ideology, personal and social needs. Language, therefore, is not a clear medium for communication about an objective world, nor is it a reflection of a stable social structure, but it promulgates a set of versions of reality and thereby works as a constantly operative part of so-

cial processes (Fowler, 1991).

From the perspective of CDA, no use of language is considered truly neutral, objective and value-free. Critical linguists take the view that any aspect of linguistic structure, whether phonological, syntactic, lexical, semantic, pragmatic or textual, can carry ideological significance (ibid.). Thompson (1990) points out that the concept of ideology first appeared in late eighteenth-century France and has thus been in use for about two centuries (Wodak, 2001). For Thompson, ideology refers to “social forms and processes within which, and by means of which, symbolic forms circulate in the social world” (ibid.) . According to Fowler (1991), ideology is “the sum of the ways in which people both live and represent to themselves their relationship to the conditions of their existence” . Simpson (1993) defines ideology as “the taken-for-granted assumptions, beliefs and value-systems which are shared collectively by social groups” and van Dijk (1998a) defines the general social function of ideologies as “not wrong or right, but rather more or less effective in promoting the interests of a group” . Fairclough (1995a) suggests that the concept of ideology here focuses upon “the effects of ideologies rather than questions of truth, and features of texts are seen as ideological in so far as they affect (sustain, undermine) power relations. Ideology is seen as located in both structures (discourse conventions) and event.”

Gee (1990) suggests that ideology under Marx “is an ‘upsidedown’ version of reality. Things are not really the way the elite and powerful believe them to be; rather, their beliefs invert reality to make it appear the way they would like it to be, the way it ‘needs’ to be if their power is to be enhanced and sustained.” Callinicos (1983) labels this interpretation of Marx an epistemological conception of ideology:

Here, ideology is conceived as a set of false beliefs, constituted by a dual relation, first, to the reality of which it is an inverted reflection, and, secondly, to the true, scientific knowledge of that reality. ... The obverse, of course, is that another minority, this time an enlightened one armed with the truth, can free the masses from these deceptions by the power of reason alone.

Ideology, “is not just any system of ideas or beliefs but ways of thinking in which historically transient exploitative forms of social organisation are represented as eternal, natural, inevitable or ‘rational’” (Jones, 2001). Fairclough (1989) points out that “Ideologies are closely linked to language, because using language is the commonest form of social behavior, and the form of social behavior where we rely most on common sense assumptions.” Language is not used in a contextless vacuum; rather, it is used in a host of discourse contexts, which are impregnated with the ideology of social systems and institutions. Because language operates within this social dimension it must, of necessity reflect, and some would argue, construct ideology (Simpson, 1993).

Teun van Dijk (1998a) states that “many ideologies develop precisely in order to sustain, legitimate or manage group conflicts, as well as relationships of power and dominance.” Fairclough (1989) argues that “ideology works through disguising its nature, pretending to be what it isn't” and that “ideology is most effective when its workings are least visible. If one becomes aware that a particular aspect of common sense is sustaining power inequalities at one's own expense, it ceases to be common sense, and may cease to have the capacity to sustain power inequalities, i. e. to function ideologically.”

To quote Norman Fairclough (1989), “the exercise of power, in

modern society, is increasingly achieved through ideology, and more particularly through the ideological workings of language” . Ideologies are closely linked to power, because the nature of the ideological assumptions embedded in particular conventions, and so the nature of those conventions themselves, depends on the power relation which underlie the conventions; and because they are a means of legitimizing existing social relations and differences of power, simply through the recurrence of ordinary, familiar ways of behaving which take these relations and power differences for granted. Ideologies are closely lined to language, because using language is the commonest form for social behavior, and the form of social behavior where we rely most on “common-sense” assumption (ibid.).

The effectiveness of ideology depends to a considerable degree on it being merged with the common-sense background to discourses and other forms of social action. Language does not overtly involve itself with ideology. But ideology manages to function implicitly through the assumptions of language. In other words, ideology is most effective when its working is least visible. If one becomes aware that a particular aspect of common sense is sustaining power inequalities at one's own expenses, it ceases to be common sense, and thus may cease to function ideologically (ibid).

Hegemony is “a condition in which the governed accept or acquiesce in authority without the need for the application of force. Although force was always latent in the background, hegemony meant leadership rather than domination” (Cox, 2004). “The steady global expansion of liberal democracy in recent decades... has made governing elites, ruling classes and dominant groups everywhere responsive to mass opinion” (McNair, 2005) . As Cox (2004) puts it:

Legitimacy or illegitimacy characterise the relationship of government to the governed — or, more broadly, the nature of authority. The relationship is legitimate when people in general accept the institutions and procedures of authority and the decisions which emerge, even if they do not like them. When that general acceptance becomes eroded, when there is no general acceptance that decisions have been properly arrived at, the relationship becomes illegitimate.

The work of mainstream journalists mediates the relationship between ruling class ideology and news content (Murdock, 2000) and supports the hegemony by naturalizing, or taking for granted, the inequalities of contemporary capitalism (Gitlin, 1979). Journalists, having internalized “commonsensical notions of who ought to be treated as authoritative”, “accept the frames imposed on events by officials and marginalise the delegitimate voices that fall outside the dominant elite circles” (Reese, 1990). However, it should be noted that such elite ideological dominance arises “as a property of the system of relations involved, rather than as the overt and intentional biases of individuals” (Hall, 1982).

The approach to CDA that this study adopts “conceives at once of a subject who is produced by society, and of a subject who acts to support or change that society. . . this human subject is constituted in ideology, and at the same time acts to make history and change society” (Coward and Ellis, 1977).

3.2 Fairclough's three-dimensional model

Currently, there are three representative approaches to CDA,

the socio-cognitive approach of vanDijk (1993, 1998, 2001), the discourse-historical method of Ruth Wodak (1996, 2002) and the three-dimensional model of Norman Fairclough (1995a, b, 2000, 2003). Among them, the best received and most widely adopted model is Fairclough's, which is also employed in this book.

Content analysis “covers traditional forms of linguistic analysis — analysis of vocabulary and semantics, the grammar of sentences and smaller units, and the sound system (‘phonology’) and writing system. But it also includes analysis of textual organisation above the sentence, including the ways in which sentences are connected together (‘cohesion’) and things like the organisation of turn-taking in interviews or the overall structure of a newspaper article” (Fairclough, 1995b). As Lukes (1974) puts it:

To use the vocabulary of power in the context of social relationships is to speak of human agents, separately or together, in groups or organisations, through action or inaction, significantly affecting the thoughts or actions of others (specifically, in a manner contrary to their interests). In speaking thus, one assumes that, although the agents operate within structurally determined limits, they none the less have a certain relative autonomy and could have acted differently. The future, though it is not entirely open, is not entirely closed either (and, indeed, the degree of its openness is itself structurally determined).

CDA aims to systemically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between discursive practices, events and texts, and wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how much practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over

power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony (Fairclough, 1993). CDA means

the analysis of relationships between concrete language use and the wider social cultural structures... He attributes three dimensions to every discursive event. It is simultaneously text, discursive practice—which also includes the production and interpretation of texts—and social practice. The analysis is conducted according to these three dimensions (Titscher et al. , 2000) .

Fairclough (1989) sees language and discourse as social practice and suggests that critical analysts should “commit not just to analyzing the texts, nor just analyzing processes of production and interpretation, but to analyzing the relationship between texts, processes and their social conditions, both the immediate conditions of the situational context and the more remote conditions of institutional and social structures” . In *Language and Power* , Fairclough developed a three-dimensional model of CDA which includes texts, interactions and contexts as illustrated in Figure 3. 1.

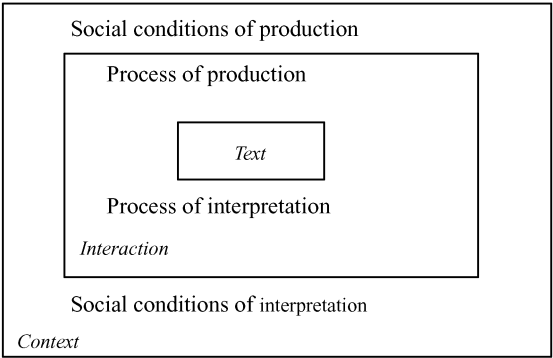


Figure 3. 1 Discourse as Text, Interaction and Context (Fairclough, 1989)

Echoing the three dimensions of discourse, Fairclough (1989) develops three stages of CDA: description, interpretation and explanation.

*(a) **Description** is the stage which is concerned with formal properties of the text.*

*(b) **Interpretation** is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction—with seeing the text as the product of a process of production, and as a resource in the process of interpretation.*

*(c) **Explanation** is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context—with the social determination of the processes of production and interpretation, and their social effects.*

Later, Fairclough (1992) revised this model in the book *Discourse and Social Change*, and advanced a new three-dimensional framework for CDA. Figure 3.2 is the revised version of the model. The analysis should focus on (a) the linguistic features of the text (**text**), (b) processes relating to the production and consumption of the text (**discursive practice**), and (c) the wider social context to which the communicative event belongs (**social practice**).

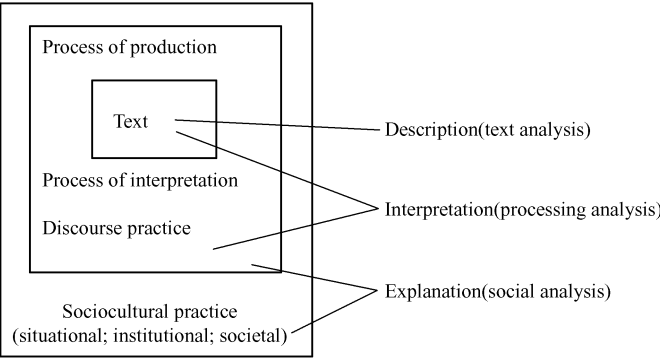


Figure 3.2 A Framework of CDA (Fairclough, 1995a)

To put it simply, the method of Fairclough's (1995a) framework includes linguistic description of the language text, interpretation of the relationship between the (productive and interpretative) discursive processes and the text, and explanation of the relationship between the discursive processes and the social processes. A special feature of this approach is that the link between sociocultural practice and text is mediated by discourse practice.

3.3 Halliday's three metafunctions of language

As to analytic tools for CDA research, there are many different choices. Both Fowler and Fairclough, many other critical researchers as well, draw on Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar, especially in the analysis of the linguistic features of the text. It provides CDA with clear and rigorous linguistic categories for analyzing the relationships between discourse and social meaning. Following Halliday, both CL and CDA practitioners view language in use as simultaneously performing "three metafunctions which are continuously interconnected: firstly, the ideational function through which language lends structure to experience (the ideational structure has a dialectical relationship with social structure, both reflecting and influencing it); secondly, the interpersonal function which constitutes relationships between the participants; and thirdly, the textual function which constitutes coherence and cohesion in texts" (Wodak, 2001). Moreover, subcategories such as transitivity, lexical classification, transformation, etc. have been employed in CDA. The book is intended to unmask the hidden relationships between language and ideology;

hence the ideational function of language will be the focus of the study.

This book selects the following analytic categories: transitivity, lexical classification, transformation (nominalization and passivisation), modality and intertextuality. The first four are tools for linguistic analysis of the text; the last one is used for the analysis of discursive practices in news discourse.

In Halliday's opinion, language serves three functions: (a) to communicate about events and processes in the world (ideational function); (b) to express a producer's attitude to these propositions, and to show a producer's perceived relation with an interlocutor (interpersonal function); and (c) to present these in coherent, adequate and appropriate texts (textual function). The three metafunctions can be realized in language by various devices, such as transitivity, lexical classification, modality, etc. Halliday (1971) puts his three metafunctions of language clearly as follows:

In the first place, language serves for the expression of contents; It has a representational, or, as I would prefer to call it, an ideational function ... it is through this function that the speaker or writer embodies in language his experience of the phenomenon of the real world, and this includes his experience of the internal world of his own consciousness; his reactions, cognitions, and perceptions, and also his linguistic acts of speaking and understanding ...

In the second place, language serves what we may call an interpersonal function ... Here, the speaker is using language as the means of his own intrusion into the speech event; the expression of his comments, his attitudes, and evaluations, and also of the relationship that he sets up between himself and his listener-in particular, the communication role that he adopts, of informing, questioning,

greeting, persuading and the like ...

But there is a third of function ... I shall call this the textual function, since it is concerned with the creation of text ... It is through this function that language makes links with itself and with situation, and discourse becomes possible, because the speaker or writer can produce a text and the listener or reader can recognize one.

3.3.1 The ideational metafunction

Language is used to organize, understand and express our perceptions of the world and of our own consciousness. This function is known as the ideational function. The ideational function can be classified into two subfunctions: the experiential and the logical. The experiential function is largely concerned with content or ideas. The logical function is concerned with the relationship between ideas (Bloor and Bloor, 2001) .

The ideational function is about the expression of “content” and the transmission of information. In Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar, transitivity and lexical structure are two major determinants of ideational structure. In this part, we shall introduce transitivity, classification and transformation which are important to the present study.

3.3.1.1 Transitivity

Transitivity describes the relationships between participants and the roles they play in the processes described in reporting. Mills (1995) argues that “the study of transitivity is concerned with how actions are represented; what kind of actions appear in a text, who does them and to whom they are done” — in short, the “who (or

what) does what to whom (or what)” . As Simpson (1993) demonstrates, in any process, there are three components that can be changed:

- (1) The *participants* involved in the process. These roles are typically realised by noun phrases in the clause.
- (2) The *process* itself, which will be expressed by the verb phrase in a clause.
- (3) The *circumstances* associated with the process, normally expressed by adverbial and prepositional phrases.

Transitivity in Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar concerns the ways in which ideational meaning is represented in the clause—how people's experience of reality is modeled in terms of processes. It “deals with the types of processes, which are coded, in the clauses and types of participants involved in them” (Fairclough, 1992). According to Halliday, the semantic process represented in the clause has potentially three components; the process itself, which is expressed by the verb phrases in the clause; the participants involved in the process and typically realized by noun phrases in the clause; and the circumstances associated by the process, which are normally expressed by adverbial and prepositional phrases.

Our most powerful impression of experience is that “it consists of ‘going-on’ —doing, happening, sensing, meaning and being and becoming” (Halliday, 1994). Transitivity is simply the grammar of the clause in its ideational aspect. It consists of six different processes; Material Process, Behavioral Process, Mental Process, Verbal Process, Relational Process and Existential Process. The following table is a summary of the types of process Halliday identified in the *Grammar of English* , together with their general category meaning

and the principal participant functions that are associated with each.

Table 3.1 Process Types, Their Meanings, and the Key Participants
(Halliday, 1994)

Process type	Category meaning	Participants
Material: Action event	“doing” “doing” “happening”	Actor, Goal
Behavioral	“behaving”	Behaver
Mental: Perception Affection Cognition	“sensing” “seeing” “feeling” “thinking”	Senser, Phenomenon
Verbal	“saying”	Sayer, Target, Receiver, Verbiage
Relational: Attribution Identification	“being” “attributing” “identifying”	Carrier, Attribute Identified, Identifier
Existential	“existing”	Existent

In the transitivity analysis, three basic questions can be asked about any process and the clause of which it forms the nucleus: (1) What kind of process is it? (2) How many participants can / must be involved in the process? (3) What roles can / must those participants play (Thompson, 1996) ?

3.3.1.2 Lexical classification

In addition to transitivity in Halliday's linguistic theory, vocabulary is also a major determinant of ideational metafunction. Every speaker or writer not only has a “list” of words in mind, but also a “map” of the words. There is a matter of choice when deciding which word is used and which is suppressed.

The terms of classification and categorization are interchangeably

used in the critical discourse analysis referring to the basic level of language function—word choice (Fowler et al. , 1979) . “Lexical choice”, says van Dijk (1988a), “is an eminent aspect of news discourse in which hidden opinions or ideologies may surface” . He holds that words may be chosen that generally or conceptually express values or norms, and that therefore are used to express a value judgment (van Dijk, 1995). Language can be seen as a tool for the classification of our experience of the world in many different ways and at many different levels. According to Hodge and Kress (1993),

Classification is at the basis of language and thought. Without acts of classification no one could relate concepts or words to new concepts or messages because words and concepts only exist through classifications. As social beings we learn through classifications, and we learn classifications.

When analyzing the classification system of a discourse, other two linguistic features are often mentioned. One is “over-lexicalization”, which refers to the existence of an excess of quasi-synonymous terms for entities and ideas that are a particular preoccupation or problem in the culture's discourse. The other is “re-lexicalization”, which is “generating new wordings which are set up as alternative to, and in opposition to, existing ones” (Fairclough, 1992).

Classification schemes in different discourse types may differ quantitatively, in a sense of wording particular aspects of reality to different degrees, with alager or smaller number of words” and “the classification scheme constitutes a particular way of dividing up some aspect of reality which is built upon a particular ideological representation of that reality. In this way, the structure of a vocabulary is ideologically based (Fairclough, 1989).

Therefore, word classification is an important cognitive ability for the human being, which endows the outside world with others.

3.3.1.3 Transformation

Transformations are “a set of operations on basic forms, deleting, substituting, combining, or reordering a syntagm or its elements” (Hodge and Kress, 1993). “Transformations always involve suppression and / or distortion” and “the typical function of transformations is distortion and mystification” (ibid.). Nominalization and passivisation are two specific transformations.

1) Nominalization

A nominalization is a process converted into noun (or a multi-word compound noun) (Fairclough, 1989). It is reduced in the sense that some of the meanings one gets in a sentence is missing—tense, so there is no indication of the timing of the process; modality; and often an agent and / or a patient (ibid.). It shares with the passive voice the potentiality of omitting the Agent, and the motivation for doing this are also various. In *Language and Control*, Fowler et al. (1979) claims that nominalization is, inherently, potentially mystificatory; that is permitted habits of concealment, particularly in the areas of power relations and writers' attitudes. As Fowler (1991) observes, nominalization is a radical syntactic transformation of a clause, which has extensive structural consequences, and offers substantial ideological opportunities. When doing critical analysis of news discourse, we should not ignore such a phenomenon.

2) Passivisation

There are active voice and passive voice in English grammar. If the verb is transitive, when the direct object (in the active voice) is moved to subject position (in the passive voice), the passivisation may

occur. Examples are listed below:

- (1) Tom kicked the ball. (active voice)
- (2) The ball was kicked by Tom. (passive voice)
- (3) The ball was kicked. (passive voice)

The passivisation occurs when sentence (1) is changed into sentence (2). From sentence (3), we can see that the original subject (agent) “Tom”, which is obligatory in the active voice, is no longer obligatory in the passive voice.

Obviously, agent-deletion is a notable feature in passivisation, which is a convenient way of saying that something has been done but without doer named. According to Fairclough (1989), “agentless passives again leave causality and agency unclear... It can be obfuscation of agency and causality.” There are various reasons for choosing passive voice. Maybe it is a requirement of a literary form or a type of writing; or it is made deliberately and purposely because of personal or ideological reasons.

3.3.2 The interpersonal metafunction

“Language is used to enable us to participate in communicative acts with other people, to take on roles and to express and understand feelings, attitude and judgments. This function is known as the interpersonal function” (Bloor and Bloor, 2001). In this part, the most effective means of interpersonal function—modality and mood will be briefly introduced.

3.3.2.1 Modality

As Simpson (1993) puts it, “Modality refers broadly to a speaker's attitude towards, or opinion about, the truth of a proposition expressed by a sentence. It also extends to their attitude towards the

situation or event described by a sentence.” Modality can be regarded as a speaker or writer's comment about or attitude towards the truth of a proposition as well as the situation or event presented by the proposition. Fairclough (1989) regards modality as something to do with speaker or writer authority, and distinguishes relational modality and expressive modality. The former is a matter of the authority of one participant in relation to others, and the latter is a matter of the speaker or writer's authority with respect to the truth or probability of a representation of reality. Fowler (1991) regards modality as “ ‘comment’ or ‘attitudes’, obviously by definition ascribable to the source of the text, and explicit or implicit in the linguistic stance taken by the speaker / writer”, and distinguishes four types of modality: (a) truth, (b) obligation, (c) permission and (d) desirability.

As news discourse cannot be free from comments or attitudes, it is necessary to make the analysis of modality. Modality can be realized by various devices. Through modal auxiliary verbs (e. g. must, can, should, may, etc.), adjectives (e. g. possible, likely, obvious, etc.) and adverbs (e. g. possibly, probably, apparently, definitely, etc.), modality can be realized. Besides, personal pronouns and verbs (such as want, think, feel, hope, wish, etc.) are also able to realize modality.

Tense, especially present tense, which also carries modal significance, is an important strategy adopted by news reports to express their own attitudes toward reported events. In news discourse, the past events sometimes are reported in the present tense. This tense does not indicate time, but signifies universal truth, permanent state, habitual and continued action and process, etc.

According to the degree of affinity with a proposition, modality

can be divided into two kinds: subjective modality and objective modality. In the case of subjective modality, it is clear that the producer's own degree of affinity with a proposition is being conveyed, however, in the case of objective modality, it may not be clear whose perspective is being represented. So the news reporters prefer objective modality to subjective one, which often implies some form of power.

Another variable in modality is the Value that is attached to the modal judgment: high, median or low. See Table 3. 2.

Table 3. 2 Modal Operators (Halliday, 1994)

Judgment	low	median	high
Positive	can, may, could, might, (dare)	will, would, should, is/was to	must, ought to, need, has/had to
Negative	needn't, doesn't/didn't+need to, have to	won't, wouldn't, shouldn't, (isn't/wasn'tto)	mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't, (mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to)

3. 3. 2. 2 Mood

Mood plays a special role in carrying out the interpersonal function of a clause. The mood system consists of two parts: subject and finite element, and appears in different categories of clauses: statement clause, imperative clause and question clause (Zhang Lei, 2005). Mood is a system involving the choices among declarative, interrogative, imperative and exclamative and relating to the interaction of Subject and Finite in the clause. At the same time, the part of the clause expresses this. According to Bloor and Bloor (2001), each mood has a typical unmarked thematic pattern, which is summarized in Table 3. 3.

Table 3.3 Mood

MOOD	THEME realized by
Declarative	Subject
Interrogative	Finite + Subject
Imperative	Predicator
Exclamative	Wh-word Complement or Wh-word Adjunct

3.3.3 The textual metafunction

“Language is used to relate what is said (or written) to the real world and to other linguistic events. This involves the use of language to organize the text itself. This is known as the textual function” (ibid.). According to Halliday, textual function is concerned with how bits of information are foregrounded and backgrounded, taken as given or presented as new, picked out as “topic” or “theme” . It also concerns how a part of a text is linked to preceding and following parts of the text, the other texts and the social situation outside the text. This function can be realized through “verbal reproduction” (or “speech reporting”) and “thematic choice” . This study will mainly focus on intertextuality.

Fairclough (1992) defines intertextuality as “basically the property texts have of being full of snatches of other text, which may be explicitly demarcated or merged in, and which the text may assimilate, contradict, ironically echo, and so forth.” Any text is a mixture of quotations and any text is the absorption and transformation of another. According to Fishman (1980), “news makers take their facts from other people's account”. It indicates that news reports are filled with people's original words and the information paraphrased or

reproduced by the reporters. To work on news discourse, we have to focus on the news source, the modes of speech reporting and reporting verbs at the same time.

3.3.3.1 News source

News source is an important concern in speech reporting. Since news reporting relies much on other people's account or experience, the news reporter's attitude can be reflected by what he chooses to report or what news source he refers to. News source can be identified by using a definite source (e. g. "the Prime Minister said", "President Bush said") or an indefinite source (e. g. "Officials say", "It is reported..."). The indefinite source allows some degree of vagueness.

In news reports, the reporter usually provides the readers with the original news sources of speeches and viewpoints in order to make the reports objective. According to ZhangJian (1994), news sources can be divided into three kinds: (a) specified sources, (b) semi-specified sources and (c) unspecified sources. The information sources are given as fully as possible by the reporters. For example, the full name of the information provider, his or her official position or occupation, etc. will be specified in detail. Sometimes the reporters do not give the full information of sources, for instance, only the names of institutions or groups will be given. The reporters might be asked to keep confidential the personal data of the information providers, who are not willing to expose their identity and could give more information on the condition of anonymity. Unspecified sources are always given in vague words by the reporters on the condition that the reporters want to conceal them purposely but still to show accuracy and objectivity, or the exact information is not clear enough, maybe in-

correct sometimes.

3.3.3.2 Modes of speech reporting and reporting verb

Two modes of speech reporting will be introduced here: (a) direct speech and (b) indirect speech. In direct speech, the original words are quoted in the quotation marks with the tenses and deictics remaining unchanged. In indirect speech, the original words are re-organized by the writer in his / her own words and no quotation mark is used. Since the voices of the reporter and the reported are incorporated together in indirect speech, we are not sure which words are the original and which are not. So it is claimed that indirect speech is often employed by the reporters to transmit their own opinions, while direct speech is objective and faithful to the original utterance. However, neither direct speech nor indirect speech can achieve absolute objectivity, because they cannot be free from the linguistic choice as well as the ideological values of the reporters.

Reporting verbs play an important role in demonstrating a reporter's attitude toward the quoted speech. The selection and distribution of reporting verbs can control and anticipate the meaning of the forthcoming reported speech.

In a word, the intertextuality of news discourse is an important property in news reporting. When analyzing news discourse, we should pay special attention to it because various ideologies may be expressed via different news sources, modes of speeches and reporting verbs.

3.4 Summary

In this chapter, we have first reviewed the studies on news dis-

course, the definition of Critical Discourse Analysis, the related previous studies on CDA and the relationships among language, media and society, then we have discussed Fairclough's three-dimensional model and Halliday's three metafunctions of language. News discourse could be analyzed from three levels: text, discursive practice and social practice. The determinants of the three metafunctions of language, including transitivity, lexical classification, transformation, modality and intertextuality are discussed at the basic linguistic level and will be adopted as analytic tools for the CDA case study in the next chapter.

From the previous literature review on Critical Discourse Analysis, we have following findings:

- (1) The existing critical researches of the news media mainly focus on influential events, such as news reports on politics, economy, wars, strikes, social problems and so on. However, other news topics, say, sports, entertainments, disasters, etc. gain less attention and are often ignored.
- (2) Early critical news studies provided great inspiration for the development of CDA, and in return, the profound development of CDA has provided a better theoretical framework and more applicable analytic tools for the analysis of language use in news discourse.
- (3) The relationship between language and ideology is always the concern of CDA. It is a cross-discipline, combined by discourse analysis and critical studies.

Chapter 4

Analyzing news messages: an approach from CDA

Looking solely at “news reporting” —one of several text genres that make up newspaper discourse—news “is the end-product of a complex process which begins with a systematic sorting and selecting of events and topics according to a socially constructed set of categories” (Hall et al. , 1978) . As Fairclough (1995b) puts it, journalistic texts are “the outcome of specific professional practices and techniques, which could be and can be quite different with quite different results” .

This chapter is devoted to applying the theory of CDA into the practice of analyzing news reports, which are searched and collected from Xinhuanet (<http://www.xinhuanet.com/english/home.htm>), with topics concerning China's Belt and Road initiatives, the Boao forum and the Brussels attack respectively. The sample news reports in present research are confined to hard news reports, which is a parti-

cular and significant text type of news discourse from the perspective of CDA.

This chapter will primarily draw upon Fairclough's model of CDA that we have illustrated in Chapter 3 and employ some analytic tools to do a critical discourse analysis of the four selected samples. The analysis will focus only on particular important features of language use, including transitivity, classification, transformation, modality and intertextuality to reveal the hidden relationships between language and ideology.

4.1 Data collection and sample cases selection

All the data used in the research are collected from the Xinhuanet, which is sponsored by the Xinhua News Agency, and is China's important central news service-oriented website, and one of the most influential news portals in the world. Supported by the domestic and overseas branches of Xinhua News Agency and its 29 provincial channels and companies overseas, Xinhuanet has developed its own global network for collecting news and information, and is an all-media information gathering, processing and spreading platform, boasting a strong spreading power, a wide coverage, a comprehensive collecting means and varied forms of dissemination among the Chinese network media. Xinhuanet releases global news information 24 hours daily in languages of Chinese (simplified and traditional), English, French, Spanish, Russian, Arabic, Japanese, Korean, German, Tibetan, and Uyгур. According to Alexa, a US website-ranking service, Xinhuanet was the 71st in the three-month comprehensive

ranking among the global websites and the 11th among the Chinese websites up to December 31, 2014. It topped the 2014 Ranking List of Classified Websites released by the China Internet Weekly under the Chinese Academy of Sciences, leading the comprehensive news websites including People.com, QQ.com, Sina.com, ifeng.com.^⑬

As known to all, the 21st century is a new era marked by the theme of peace, development, cooperation and mutual benefit. This study chooses reports with the topics concerning China's Belt and Road initiatives, the 2016 Boao forum and the Brussels attack as its focus, which fits the theme of the 21st century. The sample reports used in this study for data analysis are selected through Internet, because Internet is rather convenient for us to get the relevant information immediately after the event. Besides, the online version of the news reports is identical in content to the officially published version. Among the data, four of them are analyzed in detail as samples with brief information listed in Table 4.1. For full texts of the samples, see Appendix 4.

Table 4.1 Brief Information of the Samples

Samples	News Headline	Reporting Site and Time
Sample 1	China's Road and Belt initiatives to bring new momentum to world growth	Beijing April 14, 2015
Sample 2	Overseas observers speak highly of Chinese premier's speech at Boao forum	Beijing March 25, 2016
Sample 3	Europe at crossroads as Brussels attack unveils escalating terror activity	Beijing March 23, 2016
Sample 4	EU to enhance anti-terrorism cooperation after Brussels attacks	Brussels March 24, 2016

⑬ Source:http://news.xinhuanet.com/english/special/2015-09/06/c_134594253.htm

4.2 Critical analysis of sample reports

4.2.1 Description

4.2.1.1 Transitivity analysis

The system of transitivity makes options available, and which process type is chosen may be of cultural, political or ideological significance (Fairclough, 1992). The choices of process type and participants are very important clues of ideological investment in the use of language. Transitivity analysis is very powerful for critically probing the way language represents reality.

Since the four news reports covers nearly 3,000 words, we are not going to list all the six processes in detail, but just to select some examples to analyze and illustrate. In the sample reports from Xinhuanet, we can see that the verbal processes (processes of “saying”) occupy the most prominent position.

Here, we do an analysis of the participants in verbal process—the Sayer and the Verbiage to uncover the ideological investment by the reporter. See Table 4.2. In the table, the distribution of Sayer positions in Sample 1 and Sample 2 has been listed respectively. Since both of the two samples are the reports concerning China, the Sayer positions are divided into two kinds by the reporters, one is from the Chinese side, the other is from the overseas side. In Sample 1, all the Sayer positions are occupied by the overseas side. In Sample 2, 94.4 percent of the Sayer positions are given to the overseas side while only 5.6 percent is to the Chinese side. It seems to the readers that the reporters are intended to avoid subjectivity in news reporting of China's news by giving more Sayer positions to the foreigners.

from whom we can hear other relatively objective “voices” overseas toward China's significant events and policies.

Table 4.2 Distribution of Sayer Positions in Sample 1 and Sample 2

Samples	Chinese side	Overseas side	Total
Sample 1	0	13 (100%)	13
Sample 2	1 (5.6%)	17 (94.4%)	18

Here are some examples selected from Sample 1 for discussion:

- (1) **The initiatives will provide new opportunities for Myanmar in its economic development efforts** (Verbiage), **Myanmar's presidential spokesman U Ye Htut** (Sayer) said Thursday in an interview with Xinhua.
- (2) **“I think these are positive proposals by China to cooperate with the countries in the region along Southeast Asia and South Asia and also to Central Asia, to Europe”** (Verbiage), **Lee** (Sayer) said Friday at the two-day “Singapore Forum 2015” which concluded Saturday.
- (3) **Mohammed Al-Gergawi Fahad Al-Gergawi** (Sayer), CEO of Dubai's foreign direct investment office, said **the UAE had itself “perfectly positioned” to be part of the new Belt and Road initiatives** (Verbiage) .
- (4) **The historic plan will have dramatic implications for the entire Asian Region and many other parts of the world as well** (Verbiage), **Robert Hormats** (Sayer), former US undersecretary of state for economic growth, energy and the environment, said in a recent interview with Xinhua.
- (5) **Pieter Bottelier** (Sayer), a senior adjunct professor of China studies at the School of Advanced International Studies of the Johns Hopkins University, echoed Hormats' opinion, saying **“I**

am very impressed by the action plan announced by the (Chinese) government. It opens significant new perspectives on development in central and western Asia” (Verbiage).

In examples (1), (2), (3), (4) and (5), the Sayer positions are all taken by the foreigners, including the Myanmar’s presidential spokesman, the Singaporean Prime Minister, the CEO of Dubai’s foreign direct investment office, the former US undersecretary of state for economic growth, energy and the environment and a senior adjunct professor of China studies. It reveals that the reporter provides the non-Chinese with more discursive power to voice their opinions of China’s Belt and Road initiatives, which seems to be more objective and impartial.

The same reporting strategy is also employed in Sample 2. From the title “Overseas Observers Speak Highly of Chinese Premier’s Speech at Boao Forum”, we can see that the reporter gives the “overseas observers” the Sayer positions to give comments on and “speak highly of” Chinese Premier’s speech at Boao forum. Different overseas voices utter actively and positively to praise Premier Li Keqiang’s speech at the opening ceremony of the 2016 annual conference of the Boao Forum for Asia. The following examples (6) to (11) are selected from Sample 2 for discussion:

- (6) **The keynote speech delivered by Chinese Premier LiKeqiang at the opening ceremony of the 2016 annual conference of the Boao Forum for Asia (BFA) has put forth a new vision for promoting regional development and revitalizing Asia (Verbiage), overseas observers (Sayer) said Thursday.**
- (7) **The premier (Sayer) said that China is proposing an Asian financial cooperation association to optimize the regional financial market and avoid large-scale financial turbulence, and stands ready to link the “Belt and Road” Initiative with**

development plans of countries in Asia and regional organizations (Verbiage).

- (8) **The vitality of Asia could come from the Internet economy and innovation, in which China has made impressive achievements as a model for other countries** (Verbiage), said **Laurenceson** (Sayer).
- (9) **LiJianxiong** (Sayer), senior adviser at the China-ASEAN Business Council, hailed **the “Belt and Road” Initiative**, which, he said, **has facilitated regional cooperation, infrastructure construction and integrated development** (Verbiage).
- (10) **“Premier Li Keqiang has shown determination when tackling the challenges that the Chinese economy is facing as it shifts its growth model”** (Verbiage), **Dominique de Villepin** (Sayer), the former French prime minister, told Xinhua after Li's speech.
- (11) **China's reform is heading in the right direction, especially by allowing the market to play a bigger role in resource distribution** (Verbiage), said **Yang Xian** (Sayer), dean of the National University of Singapore Business School.

In the report, most of the Sayer positions are given to foreign politicians, scholars and analysts, whose reactions toward Chinese Premier Li Keqiang's speech content are presented through verbal processes. In example (6), Li's speech has been praised for the reason that it “has put forth a new vision for promoting regional development and revitalizing Asia” . In example (7), the premier himself takes the Sayer position to tell people what China is doing with the regional financial market and that it “stands ready to link the ‘Belt and Road’ Initiative” . From example (9), we can see that China's “Belt and Road” Initiative is also “hailed” by the Sayer. In examples (8), (10) and (11), China's achievements in Internet economy and

innovation, Premier Li's determination to tackle challenges of Chinese economy and China's reform underway are spoken highly of respectively. Apparently, what the reporter conveys to the readers is that China is resolute to build a vibrant and prosperous Asia via cooperation with other countries and organizations, which is favored and supported positively by the overseas observers.

4. 2. 1. 2 Transformation analysis

1) Passivisation

According to Halliday, the reasons for choosing passive voice might be to get the Goal as Subject, and therefore as unmarked Theme, or to put the Agent last or to make it implicit by leaving it out. And Fairclough (1989) points out that “agentless passives again leave causality and agency unclear ... It can be obfuscation of agency and causality.” Besides, Hodge and Kress (1993) argue that “the ‘economy’ of not mentioning these agents has the further effect of suppressing their existence.” However, the employment of passivisation provides an opportunity of hiding Agent. The following examples (12) to (19) are selected from Sample 3 and Sample 4 for discussion:

- (12) Tightened border controls **were introduced** at the southern border of the Netherlands, and trains to and from Brussels no longer ride.
- (13) In Paris, security patrols **were reinforced** in the French capital's two main airports.
- (14) Additional police forces **have been deployed** to control trains coming from Belgium.
- (15) Security measures **have also been beefed up** in Britain, Denmark, Norway, Finland, Italy, Greece, Poland, Slovakia, Croatia, Romania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic.
- (16) In Turkey, an international football tournament which **was**

scheduled to be held in the western coastal province of Izmir, has been postponed over security reasons.

(17) Brussels **was** later **founded out** to be highly linked to the Paris attacks as it served as a hiding place for the terrorists.

(18) Salad Abdeslam, the most wanted Paris suspect, **was arrested** in Brussels on Friday.

(19) After Paris attacks last November, a number of necessary steps **have** already **been taken** in fighting against terrorism.

In examples (12), (13), (14) and (15), agentless passive voices are used to emphasize the “tightened border controls”, “security patrols”, “additional police forces” and “security measures”, which are paid great attention to and have been put into practice after the Brussels attack. With the agents omitted in these examples, we still could infer that the deleted agents probably are the governments of some European countries, such as Netherlands, France, Belgium, etc. which have been affected more or less by a series of terrorism attacks in Europe.

In example (16), agentless passive voices are employed in both of the subordinate clause and main clause respectively. Some “security reasons” are given to the readers why “an international football tournament” in Turkey has been “postponed”, but without telling them who is responsible for it. In example (17), the reporter uses the agentless passive voice to successfully avoid mentioning how was Brussels found out that it was “highly linked to the Paris attacks as it served as a hiding place for the terrorists” and who did find it out. It seems to convey to the readers a mysterious sense to guess that it might be the confidential intelligence. The same strategy is used in example (18). By omitting the agent, the reporter presents the readers with the result that “the most wanted Paris suspect was arrested in Brussels on Friday”. However, most of the arrest details, say, the parties involved, the manner it takes, remain unknown.

In example (19), the agent is left out to shift the focus on “a number of necessary steps”, which are important in “fighting against terrorism” .

2) Nominalization

Nominalization allows a process, more obviously realized as a verb, to be realized as a noun and hence to become a participant in a further process. As claimed by Fowler (1991), it “has extensive structural consequences, and offers substantial ideological opportunities” .

In the previous example (4), the nominal word “implication” is used to replace the verb “imply”, which indicates that the reporter intends to show the readers the influence of the “historic plan”, not the concrete content of it. Nominalization has its great significance in CDA, which permits the omission of agency and modality, hence making the participants and responsibilities of the discourse mysterious. More examples are listed below:

- (20) On March 28, China published an action plan for its Belt and Road initiatives based on the four principles of **openness** and **cooperation**; **harmony** and **inclusiveness**; market **operation**; and mutual benefit, emphasizing policy **coordination**, **connectivity**, unimpeded trade, financial **integration** and people-to-people bonds. (from Sample 1)
- (21) “I think the Belt and Road initiatives can make a major contribution to the region if regional neighbors are actively involved in all phases of design and **implementation**, which seems to be a key feature of the plan,” said Hormats. (from Sample 1)
- (22) Song had raised the issue of “a divided society,” caused mainly by the relative “**isolation**” of minority groups in some European countries, mostly composed of immigrants and disadvantaged groups, after the attack on Charlie Hebdo magazine in Paris in

January 2015. (from Sample 3)

- (23) The cartoon weekly had repeatedly ridiculed Prophet Muhammad, which is considered disrespectful and a **violation** of Islamic practice. (from Sample 3)
- (24) The ministers called for swift **completion** of the legislation on combating terrorism, on systematic checks at external borders of the Schengen area, on control of the **acquisition** and **possession** of firearms and on the **extension** of the European Criminal Records Information System (ECRIS) to third-country nationals. (from Sample 4)

In example (20), the nominal words “openness”, “cooperation”, “harmony”, “inclusiveness”, “operation”, “coordination”, “connectivity” and “integration” are briefly and concisely employed to distract the readers’ attention from the possible related or involved participants in the “Belt and Road initiatives” just to the “four principles” itself on which the action plan is based. In example (21), the verb “implement” is transformed to the noun “implementation” by the reporter to imply the importance of the concept of mutual participation in the “action plan for its Belt and Road initiatives” . In example (22), instead of probing too much into the complicated foreign political issues, the employment of the nominal word “isolation” could easily make the readers aware of the minority groups’ status in some European countries. The similar strategy is adopted in example (23) as well. What the reporter intends to convey to the readers is that the nominal word “violation” indicates the consequence of “the repeated ridicule toward Prophet Muhammad” . Moreover, it also remains mysterious and makes it less likely to invoke questions such as “What judgment standard does it refer to?” or “What degree does it reach to?” . In example (24), the nominalized word “completion” is exposed to indicate what really matters is the ultimate status of “the legislation on

combating terrorism”, and no one would care who are involved in completing it. When the verbs “acquire” and “possess” are nominalized respectively, it is easier for the readers to ignore the subjects who would get and own the firearms. Nominalization is significant in CDA, in which the omission of agency and modality makes the participants and responsibilities of the discourse mysterious.

4.2.1.3 Lexical classification analysis

Classification is mainly realized through the choice of vocabulary. It is an integral part of the production of ideology in the news discourse. To examine the lexical classification about the participant or the event is very helpful to reveal the reporter's attitude and the hidden ideology. In Simpson's (1993) words, “... in written texts, where a choice of one type of name over another can encode important information about the writer's attitude to the individual referred to in a text.”

Table 4.3 lists the lexical choices concerning overseas comments on China's Belt and Road initiatives and Chinese premier's speech at Boao forum. The words used for description are all selected from Sample 1 and Sample 2.

Table 4.3 Lexical Choices in Sample 1 and Sample 2

Samples	Lexical Choices
Sample 1	Positive
	new momentum, are welcomed, promote win-win cooperation, welcome, advocacy, hail, positive, perfectly positioned, dramatic, historically important, historical significance, a great and historic endeavor, boost trade and investment, enhance, prosperity, interesting and promising
Sample 2	Positive
	speak highly of, promoting, revitalizing, vibrant, optimize, promote, tremendous potential, vitality, impressive, hail, a strong supplement, enhance, sustainable, important, positive

From Table 4.3, we can see that the reporter in Sample 1 employs and quotes many commendatory words commented on China's

Belt and Road initiatives, such as “new momentum”, “historically important”, “historical significance”, etc. which conveys to the readers that China's Belt and Road initiatives are “positive”, “welcomed” and “perfectly positioned”. The Initiatives would “boost trade and investment” and bring us “prosperity”, which could make the future of China “interesting and promising”. In Sample 2, the reporter also adopts quite positive reporting strategies to expose to the readers what the overseas comments on Chinese premier's speech at Boao Forum are. In the headline, “speak highly” reveals the keynote of the whole report. Words like “vibrant”, “optimize” could pass on a positive feeling among the readers, which makes them more confident in both of the Chinese and Asian economy. The following examples (25) to (27) are selected from Sample 1 and 2 for discussion:

- (25) China's Belt and Road initiatives **are welcomed** by officials and experts worldwide, who believe they would **inject new momentum into** the economies in Asia and beyond, and **promote win-win cooperation** between China and many other countries. (from Sample 1)
- (26) “These initiatives combined represent **a historically important set** of international economic initiatives led by China; there has been nothing of this scale and **historical significance** since the 1940s and 1950s,” said Hormats, adding “this is **truly a great and historic** endeavor.” (from Sample 1)
- (27) The vitality of Asia could come from the Internet economy and innovation, in which China has made **impressive** achievements as a **model** for other countries, said Laurence-son. (from Sample 2)

In example (25), we can see that the approvals and praises of China's Belt and Road initiatives from the officials and experts worldwide, which

could be sensed by the word “welcome” . In example (26), it is striking to the readers that the words “historically”, “historical” and “historic” are used as adverb, adjective and noun respectively in the same example. The three kinds of the morphological changes are employed by the reporter in the same example to indicate a “truly” “great” significance of China's Belt and Road initiatives to the readers. In example (27), as to China, the foreign observer chooses “impressive” to describe the achievements China has made. Moreover, the word “model” demonstrates China's role in the Internet economy and innovation. Here, we can see a positive image of China has been built through these choices of words.

Table 4.4 lists the lexical choices concerning the reports on Brussels attack. The words used for description are all selected from Sample 3 and Sample 4.

Table 4.4 Lexical Choices in Sample 3 and Sample 4

Samples	Lexical Choices
Sample 3	Negative
	deadly attacks, escalating violence, killed, injured, clash of civilization, a divided society, had repeatedly ridiculed, disrespectful, upset feelings, has worsened, furious, a global panic, bloodshed, bombed
Sample 4	Positive
	enhance anti-terrorism cooperation, enhance ... collective ability, combat terrorism, renewed, accelerate, support, encouraged, coordinate, resolute, support and solidarity, stand determined, fight against terrorism

In Table 4.4, we can see a lot of negative and positive words are used to describe the Brussels attack in both Sample 3 and Sample 4. The difference is that the negative words chosen in Sample 3 are employed to condemn the terrorism attack and depict the miserable victims in the attack, while the positive words chosen in Sample 4 are used to demonstrate EU's resolution to combat terrorism. In Sample 3, words, such as “deadly”, “violence”, “killed”, “injured”, “panic”, “bloodshed”, “bombed”,

etc. convey to the readers what a cruel and brutal terrorism attack it is. In Sample 4, “enhance anti-terrorism cooperation”, “enhance . . . collective ability”, “support and solidarity” are chosen to show EU’s standpoint and determination in anti-terrorism combat. We could notice that “over-lexicalization” is adopted, which according to Fairclough (1992), refers to the existence of an excess of quasi-synonymous terms for entities and ideas that are a particular preoccupation or problem in the culture’s discourse. The word “terrorism” collocates with the prefix “anti-”, the verb “combat”, the verb “confront” and the preposition “against” respectively in the report. In the previous examples (13), (15) and the following example (33), the word “reinforce”, the phrases “beef up” and “step up” are employed by the reporter in the same way. More examples are selected from Sample 3 for discussion:

- (28) As Belgium **recovers** from Tuesday’s **deadly** attacks with **sympathy** and **support** shown across the world, Europe finds itself standing at a **crossroads** with **difficult** decisions to be made on the security and social fronts.
- (29) The United Nations General Assembly **quickly condemned** the attacks, which **killed** 34 people and **injured** more than 180 others at the Brussels airport and a metro station nearby European Union institutions.
- (30) Brussels was the latest in **a string of** terror attacks that hit Turkey, Iraq and Ivory Coast last week.
- (31) Meanwhile, the Brussels attack will only **heighten** security across Europe, which is already **on high alert** following two **deadly** attacks in Paris last year.
- (32) The situation in Europe **has worsened** with the influx of ref-

ugees and migrants displaced by conflicts in the Middle East and North Africa.

- (33) European countries have **stepped up** security measures and are **seeking solidarity** in **confronting terrorism**.

In example (28), the “deadly attack” is put with words “sympathy” and “support” in the same sentence, which seems to be put in a sharp contrast with each other. What the reporter successfully conveys to the readers is that the kindness is everywhere which makes people reach out their hands to back up Belgium after the horrible attack. In example (29), the word “quickly” indicates the reaction speed of the United Nations General Assembly to the attack and “condemned” shows their attitude toward it. The concrete large numbers of those “killed” and “injured” in the Brussels attack makes people can't help seeking for justice and thinking of fighting against terrorism with joint efforts. The choices of the negative words used by the reporter could also successfully make positive senses to some extent. The phrase “a string of” in example (30) attracts people's attention and makes them aware of the terror attacks which take place frequently in recent days. In example (31), “heighten” and “on high alert” impress on the readers the tense situation in Europe after the Brussels attack. In example (32), the root of the word “worsened” is the comparative adjective form of “bad”, that is the word “worse”, which conveys to us it is a rather difficult time for the whole Europe now. The following examples (34) to (36) are from Sample 4 for discussion:

- (34) The European Union (EU) **pledged** to enhance its collective ability to **combat** terrorism on Thursday in the wake of **deadly** Brussels attacks.

- (35) The justice and security ministers of the EU member states held an extraordinary meeting two days after the terror **atrocity** in Brussels as **a series of explosions** at its airport and a metro station have caused at least 31 deaths.
- (36) Meanwhile, the ministers expressed their **support** and **solidarity** to Belgium, saying that they will **stand determined** in the common **fight against** terrorism.

In examples (34) and (36), the determination of the European Union to “combat” or “fight against” terrorism is exposed to the readers by the lexical choices of words “pledged” and “stand determined” . In example (35), the word “atrocity” indicates the shockingly cruel and inhumane act of the terrorists, which is consistent with “a series of explosions” in the report. It presents the readers with the bloody violence performed by the terrorists and also reveals the reporter's negative attitude toward it in the report.

4. 2. 1. 4 Modality analysis

Modality broadly refers to a speaker's attitude towards, or opinion about, the truthness of a proposition expressed by a sentence. It also extends the attitudes towards the situations or events described by a sentence. Modality is therefore “a major exponent of the interpersonal function of language” (Simpson, 1993). In the sample reports, the reporter has employed modality several times. However, different modal auxiliaries reflect different attitudes in the samples and different values of modality are attached to different propositions or proposals. The following Table 4. 5 lists the distribution of modal operators in the four samples.

Table 4.5 Distribution of Modal Operators in Samples

Samples	Low	Median	High	Total
Sample 1	1 (16.7%)	5 (83.3%)	0	6
Sample 2	6 (66.7%)	3 (33.3%)	0	9
Sample 3	0	6 (100%)	0	6
Sample 4	0	7 (100%)	0	7

As mentioned in Chapter 3, both the positive and negative modal auxiliary verbs, such as “must”, “mustn't”, “can”, “can't”, “should”, “shouldn't”, “might”, “mightn't”, “will”, “won't”, etc. can help to realize modality. We can see from the Table 4.5, no example of modulation could be selected to express a high degree of obligation in the whole four samples. However, modality that expresses median and low affinity occurs in the reports. The following examples (37) to (42) are selected from the four samples for discussion:

- (37) Hormats **said** the benefits from these historic initiatives **will** come from boosting trade and investment and enabling capital to flow to areas that need it most. (from Sample 1)
- (38) Premier Li's speech boosts confidence in the Chinese economy, **said** Li Jianxiong, explaining that the Chinese economy **will not** “hard land” as feared by other countries. (from Sample 2)
- (39) He also **expressed** the hope that Asia's regional trade deal, the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP), **can** be reached within this year. (from Sample 2)
- (40) The Dutch presidency of the EU **will** organize a ministerial meeting of the bloc to discuss the attacks in Brussels “pos-

sibly Thursday morning,” **said** a Dutch minister. (from Sample 3)

- (41) The EU member states **said** they **will** fully support the work of the Counter Terrorism Group (CTG), in particular by further accelerating the establishment of a dedicated platform for real time, multilateral information exchange. (from Sample 4)

- (42) After Paris attacks last November, a number of necessary steps have already been taken in fighting against terrorism. However, the ministers **said** they **will** pursue ongoing work in a resolute manner. (from Sample 4)

From example (37) to example (42), we can notice that in each example the modal auxiliary verb is used in the present tense while the verb in the main clause is adopted in the past tense. The different tenses are employed by the reporter in the same sentence. In Chapter 3, we have discussed “tense”, especially the present tense, which also carries modal significance, is an important strategy adopted by the news reports to express their own attitudes toward reported events. In news discourse, the past events sometimes are reported in the present tense. In example (37), “will”, instead of “would” is used to show the lasting confidence in the “historic initiatives”. In example (38), the negative modal auxiliary verb “will not”, which equals to “won’t”, is employed to strongly indicate Premier Li’s confidence in the Chinese economy. In example (41), the positive modal auxiliary verb “will” stands in contrast with the verb “said”, which is the past tense of the verb “say”. What the reporter conveys to the readers is that the EU member states will never give up supporting “the work of the Counter Terrorism Group” to show their strong determination in

fighting against terrorism. The similar strategy is adopted by the reporter in example (42) .

4. 2. 1. 5 Intertextuality analysis

1) Analysis of source

According to Xin Bin (2000) , it is up to the reporter, and ultimately the newspaper he or she works for, to decide whose voice is to be heard on what issue and such decisions are usually highly significant. Table 4. 6 shows the distribution of news sources in the four sample reports.

Table 4. 6 Distribution of News Sources in Samples

Samples	Specified	Semi-specified	Unspecified	Total
Sample 1	14 (93. 3%)	1 (6. 7%)	0	15
Sample 2	19 (90. 5%)	2 (9. 5%)	0	21
Sample 3	5 (62. 5%)	3 (37. 5%)	0	8
Sample 4	2 (33. 3%)	4 (66. 7%)	0	6
Total	40 (80. 0%)	10 (20. 0%)	0	50

From Table 4. 6, we can see there is no unspecified news source at all in the four sample reports. On the contrary, all the news sources are specified and semi-specified, which seems to make the reports more credible and convincing. In the four samples, there are 80. 0 percent of the specified news sources and 20. 0 percent of the semi-specified news sources employed in all. In Sample 1, the numbers of the news sources are 15, with the specified news sources occupying 93. 3 percent and the semi-specified taking 6. 7 percent respectively. In Sample 2, there are 21 news sources in all and the percentage of the specified news sources is 90. 5, which is the highest ratio among the four samples. In both Sample 3 and Sample 4, we can no-

tice that altogether the numbers of the news sources are 8 and 6 respectively, which are far less than those in Sample 1 and Sample 2. However, all the news sources are specified and semi-specified, which reveals to the readers that the reporters are rather serious and objective to try their best to present the “true stories” . It might be less convincing with less reliable sources in news reporting. However, it would be better to report with less unspecified news sources, which are hard for readers to trace and distinguish from.

Table 4.7 lists the specified and semi-specified sources of the news reports in the four samples. The concrete information of the news sources is provided in the reports, such as the Sayer's name, occupation, identity, etc. For more details, see Appendix 5.

Table 4.7 Specified and Semi-specified Sources in Samples

Samples	Specified Source	Semi-specified Source
Sample 1	Myanmar's presidential spokesman U YeHtut	officials and experts
	Singaporean Prime Minister LeeHsien Loong	
	Mohammed Al-Gergawi Fahad Al-Gergawi, CEO of Dubai's foreign direct investment office	
	Robert Hormats, former US undersecretary of state for economic growth, energy and the environment	
	Pieter Bottelier, a senior adjunct professor of China studies at the School of Advanced International Studies of the Johns Hopkins University	
Sample 2	Premier Likeqiang	Overseas observers
	JinJianmin, a senior fellow at Japan's Fujitsu Research Institute	
	James Laurenceson, deputy director of the Australia-China Relations Institute at the University of Technology Sydney	
	Lijianxiong, senior adviser at the China-ASEAN Business Council	

continued

Samples	Specified Source	Semi-specified Source
Sample 2	Dominique de Villepin, the former French prime minister	Overseas observers
	Yang Xian, dean of the National University of Singapore Business School	
	Yakov Berger, senior researcher with the Institute of Far Eastern Studies of the Russian Academy of Sciences	
Sample 3	SongLuzheng, a scholar and commentator living in France	experts
	Shen Xiaoquan, a senior research fellow at the Center for International Affairs Studies of Xinhua	a statement at Izmir Cup's website
	Dutch Prime Minister MarkRutte	a Dutch minister
Sample 4	the EU member states	a joint statement released by the ministers
		the ministers

2) Analysis of modes

Altogether there are 50 direct speeches and indirect speeches in the four sample reports. Table 4. 8 shows the distribution of these direct speeches and indirect speeches in the samples.

Table 4. 8 Distribution of Direct Speech and Indirect Speech in Samples

Samples	Direct Speech	Indirect Speech	Total
Sample 1	6 (40.0%)	9 (60%)	15
Sample 2	1 (4.8%)	20 (95.2%)	21
Sample 3	2 (25.0%)	6 (75.0%)	8
Sample 4	0	6 (100%)	6
Total	9 (18.0%)	41 (82.0%)	50

Table 4. 8 clearly shows that there are 9 direct speeches and 41 indirect speeches in all adopted in the four sample reports, that is 18 percent direct speeches and 82 percent indirect speeches respectively. In Sample 1, direct speech occupies 40 percent while indirect speech

takes 60 percent. In Sample 2, only 4.8 percent direct speech is employed in the report. On the contrary, the percentage of indirect speech is 95.2. In Sample 3, it is still the indirect speech that takes the larger percentage 75 compared with the direct speech's 25. In Sample 4, no direct speech is adopted in the report at all.

The readers might have a doubt that why the employment of the direct speech is obviously much less than the indirect speech in the sample reports. As we know, the employment of direct speech achieves vividness and ostensible truthfulness and makes an impression on readers that the event is represented objectively and impartially. However, the complete objectivity is merely an illusion. In news reports, the choice of employment of direct speech could also be ideologically controlled by the reporter. Indirect speech is characterized as a kind of ambivalence in voice where there is a low demarcation between reported and reporting speech. The reporter's own ideology could easily be conveyed through indirect speech. Sometimes the length of the report could be a reason that makes the reporter prefers indirect speech to direct speech. To sum up, both the direct speech and indirect speech employed by the reporters in Sample 1 and Sample 2 seem to cultivate a positive image of the Chinese economy to the readers by quoting or retelling what have been said. The reporting lengths of Sample 3 and Sample 4 are much shorter, especially the Sample 4. The 12 indirect speeches employed in both the two reports make themselves simple and clear, in which the terrorism is depicted as an "atrocious" and the "solidarity" is emphasized as an indispensable part in fighting against terrorism. What the reporters convey to the readers is the misery after the terror attack and the resolution the EU shows to combat terrorism. As we know, neither the direct speeches

nor the indirect speeches are completely objective, because they are selected by the reporter to convey his own ideologies to the readers. However, to some extent, in the four samples, the reporters try to combine direct speeches with indirect speeches to show the objectivity and impartialness in news reporting.

4. 2. 2 Interpretation and explanation

According to Fairclough (1989), “if one's concern is with the social values associated with texts and their elements, and more generally with the social significance of texts, description needs to be complemented with interpretation and explanation.” This section is to locate the text and the discursive practices in the wider institutional and social context, and to explore the related political, historical and cultural ideologies that are hidden behind the discourse.

In Sample 1, the headline “China's Road and Belt Initiatives to Bring New Momentum to World Growth” indicates clearly what China's Belt and Road initiatives mean to the world growth. China's economy is closely connected with the world economy, which is recovering slowly from the international financial crisis. The uneven global development and the complex international trade and investment make countries face big challenges to their own development. When Chinese President Xi Jinping visited Central Asia and Southeast Asia in September and October of 2013, he raised the initiative of jointly building the Silk Road Economic Belt and the 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road, which have attracted close attention from all over the world. It is all the more important for us to carry on the Silk Road Spirit in face of the weak recovery of the global economy, and complex international and regional situations. At the China-ASEAN

Expo in 2013, Chinese Premier Li Keqiang emphasized the need to build the Maritime Silk Road oriented towards ASEAN, and to create strategic propellers for hinterland development. Accelerating the building of the Belt and Road can help promote the economic prosperity of the countries along the Belt and Road and regional economic cooperation, strengthen exchanges and mutual learning between different civilizations, and promote world peace and development. It is a great undertaking that will benefit people around the world. The Initiatives will enable China to further expand and deepen its opening-up, and to strengthen its mutually beneficial cooperation with countries in Asia, Europe and Africa and the rest of the world.^⑭ China has to shoulder more responsibilities and obligations within its capabilities, and make greater contributions to the world. In the sample report, the reporter adopts both direct and indirect speeches to let people hear the “voices” from Myanmar, Singapore, the United Arab Emirates, etc. The “voices” uttered by these countries have positively confirmed that China's Belt and Road initiatives will inject “new momentum” into the economies in Asia and beyond.

In Sample 2, the headline “Overseas Observers Speak Highly of Chinese Premier's Speech at Boao Forum” directly shows the overseas observers' positive attitude toward Chinese Premier Li Keqiang's speech at Boao Forum, which is also called the Boao Forum for Asia and abbreviated to BFA. It is a non-profit organization that hosts

^⑭ Source: the full text of an action plan on the China-proposed Belt and Road Initiative, *Vision and Actions on Jointly Building Silk Road Economic Belt and 21st-Century Maritime Silk Road*, issued by the National Development and Reform Commission, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and Ministry of Commerce of the People's Republic of China, with State Council authorization, March 2015.

high-level forums for leaders from government, business and academia in Asia and other continents to share their vision on the most pressing issues in this dynamic region and the world at large. The forum inherits its name from the town of Boao, located in China's southern Hainan province, which has been the permanent venue for its annual conference since 2002. The 2016 Boao Forum for Asia has been held in South China's Hainan province from March 22nd to 25th. Participants at the annual conference focus on Asia's New future; New Dynamics, New Vision and take part in panel discussions. In this sample report, the reporter uses 21 specific and semi-specific news sources in all to illustrate how the overseas observers "speak highly" of Premier Li's speech. It also presents the readers with two brief subtitles "Building Vibrant Asia" and "China's Resolution Enhances World Confidence", which could impress on the readers that China stands determined to help build prosperous Asian and world economies.

The news headline of Sample 3, "Europe at Crossroads as Brussels Attack Unveils Escalating Terror Activity", reveals to the readers that the whole Europe is in a dilemma as Brussels attack uncovers increasing terrorism activities. The headline of Sample 4, "EU to Enhance Anti-terrorism Cooperation After Brussels Attacks", also shows the importance of fighting against terror attacks by mutual cooperation. On the morning of Tuesday, March 22nd, 2016, three coordinated nail bombings occurred in Belgium: two at Brussels Airport in Zaventem, and one at Maelbeek metro station in Brussels. In these attacks, many people were killed and got injured. The bombings were the deadliest act of terrorism in Belgium's history. The Belgian government declared three days of national mourning. After the attack, the Belgian government put the country on its highest terror threat level. The airport was

closed, and all flight departures and rail journeys to the airport were canceled. The Berlaymont building, which is near Maelbeek station and is the headquarters of the European Commission, was placed in lockdown. In Sample 3, one subtitle is written as “Security Tightened, Panic Spreads”, which briefly indicates the current situation in Europe after the attack. The other subtitle “EU Officials to Meet” implies that the EU would take some actions on it. In Sample 4, the words “atrocious” and “bloodshed” usually known as derogatory terms are employed by the reporter to describe the Brussels terror attack, which indicates the reporter’s own strong negative attitude toward terrorism. Both of these two sample reports convey to the readers that the EU is not only condemning the brutal and cruel terror attacks, but also demonstrate its resolution to combat terrorism by calling for joint efforts and solidarity.

4.3 Summary

This chapter has examined four selected news reports from Xinhuanet under the framework of Norman Fairclough’s three-dimensional model of CDA, and Halliday’s Systemic-Functional Grammar. It illustrates how language is used by the news reporters in their news reports to serve their own ideologies. It finds out that the four news reports with topics on China’s Belt and Road initiatives, the 2016 Boao Forum for Asia and the Brussels attack respectively, are relatively positive and objective. Like other news discourses studied by previous CDA practitioners, the social context of the news discourse should not be neglected, in which the reporters’ own ideologies, including beliefs, values and positions towards the events could be learned and revealed.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.1 Findings and implications of the research

This study focuses on the importance and significance of media literacy education in today's complex media environment. It intends to raise people's awareness of media literacy and foster people's critical thinking. It advocates to take the integrated strategies and adopt the idea of interdisciplinary approaches to doing media literacy education among the daily teaching of various disciplines. As to “How to be media literate?”, this book attempts to apply Critical Discourse Analysis to decoding and deconstructing media messages, which originates from the idea of combining discourse studies with media literacy education.

Based on Fairclough's three-dimensional model of CDA and Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar, the study not only has presen-

ted the readers with the feasibility of integrating CDA into media literacy teaching, but also has examined how language is used in the sample reports selected from the Xinhuanet, and how the reporters conceal their own ideologies behind the discourse. After the detailed analysis of the sample reports at the three stages of description, interpretation and explanation, it finds out that the reports concerning China's Belt and Road initiatives, the 2016 Boao Forum for Asia and the Brussels attack are relatively positive and objective. Through the choices of participants and processes in the transitivity system, the choices of words, transformation, modality and intertextuality (discourse representation), the reports chosen in the study with the theme of "peace, development, cooperation and mutual benefit" as its focus, have successfully portrayed the highly positive image of China for its key role in the economic development in Asia and worldwide, as well as the more active image of the EU for its strong resolution to seek solidarity to jointly combat terrorism, which is in opposition to the negative depiction of the terror attack for its brutality and inhumanity. The present study disproves the "value-free" delusion of news media. At the same time, it finds out that the news on economy and terror attack, is of no exception filled with ideological investment in a way. It could also be used as a medium to convey the reporters' own ideologies and speak for the powerful groups.

Language, through which ideologies are transmitted, is used in the news media to form ideas and beliefs and to realize the media's own interests. Thus more attention should be paid to how to cultivate the language learners' critical language awareness and their critical thinking. CDA also contributes a lot to language learning and teaching in our country. At present, language learning and teaching are al-

most exclusively focused on the linguistic knowledge, skills and competence. Much stress is laid on the meaning of words and the structures of sentences. On the contrary, less attention is paid to the relevant sociocultural background of the given discourses, which may make the language learners fail to “see through” the language and reveal the hidden ideologies in the discourses. If they do not pay sufficient attention to ideology in discourse, they will be easily cheated. The introduction of CDA into language teaching and learning, even media literacy education will improve the learners' competence of critical thinking and their ability of revealing the hidden relationships between language and ideology.

5.2 Limitations of the research

The research has the following limitations:

First of all, the study lays its focus on the introduction of CDA into media literacy education as a perspective and a method to decode media messages. It only presents the readers with the critical discourse analysis of sample news reports while no discussion of the concrete media literacy lesson plans has been made, which might be considered helpful to the educators in daily classroom teaching.

Secondly, it needs more exploration into media's nature, news values, journalistic practices and so on. The development of media literacy education, both in China and some Western countries, like the UK, Australia, Canada, the United States and so on, also requires to be explored and probed.

Thirdly, the present research involves a case study based on a

detailed analysis of four pieces of news, and may not be applied to all genres of the news discourse. Findings based on a larger sample size could be more safely generalized. The accuracy of statistics may not reach the level of being precise since most of the calculating work has to be done by hand.

Appendix 1

Online Model for Learning the Elements and Standards of Critical Thinking

*To Analyze Thinking We Must Identify and Question
its Elemental Structures*

A: Use the Elements with Sensitivity to Intellectual Standards

(1) Standard: Clarity

understandable, the meaning can be grasped

- Could you elaborate further?
- Could you give me an example?
- Could you illustrate what you mean?

(2) Standard: Accuracy

free from errors or distortions, true

- How could we check on that?
- How could we find out if that is true?
- How could we verify or test that?

(3) Standard: Precision

exact to the necessary level of detail

- Could you be more specific?

- Could you give me more details?
- Could you be more exact?

(4) Standard: Relevance

relating to the matter at hand

- How does that relate to the problem?
- How does that bear on the question?
- How does that help us with the issue?

(5) Standard: Depth

containing complexities and multiple interrelationships

- What factors make this a difficult problem?
- What are some of the complexities of this question?
- What are some of the difficulties we need to deal with?

(6) Standard: Breadth

encompassing multiple viewpoints

- Do we need to look at this from another perspective?
- Do we need to consider another point of view?
- Do we need to look at this in other ways?

(7) Standard: Logic

the parts make sense together, no contradictions

- Does all this make sense together?
- Does your first paragraph fit in with your last?
- Does what you say follow from the evidence?

(8) Standard: Significance

focusing on the important, not trivial

- Is this the most important problem to consider?
- Is this the central idea to focus on?
- Which of these facts are most important?

(9) Standard: Fairness

Justifiable, not self-serving or one-sided

- Do I have any vested interest in this issue?
- Am I sympathetically representing the viewpoints of others?

More Standards :

There are numerous other standards that may be applied to elements on a contextual basis. Here are just a few: **Completeness, Validity, Rationality, Sufficiency, Necessity, Feasability, Consistency, Authenticity, Effectiveness, Efficiency.** Can you identify others standards relevant to your situation?

B: Elements of Thoughts

(1) Think About... Purpose

Your purpose is your goal, your objective, what you are trying to accomplish. We also use the term to include functions, motives, and intentions. You should be clear about your purpose, and your purpose should be justifiable.

Questions which target purpose

- What is your, my, their purpose in doing _____?
- What is the objective of this assignment (task, job, experiment, policy, strategy, etc.)?
- Should we question, refine, modify our purpose (goal, objective, etc.)?
- What is the purpose of this meeting (chapter, relationship, action)?
- What is your central aim in this line of thought?
- What is the purpose of education?
- Why did you say...?

(2) State the Question

The question lays out the problem or issue and guides our thinking. When the question is vague, our thinking will lack clarity and distinctness. The question should be clear and precise enough to productively guide our thinking.

Questions which target the question

- What is the question I am trying to answer?
- What important questions are embedded in the issue?
- Is there a better way to put the question?
- Is this question clear? Is it complex?
- I am not sure exactly what question you are asking. Could you explain it?
- The question in my mind is this: How do you see the question?
- What kind of question is this? Historical? Scientific? Ethical? Political? Economic? Or... ?
- What would we have to do to settle this question?

(3) Gather... Information

Information includes the facts, data, evidence, or experiences we use to figure things out. It does not necessarily imply accuracy or correctness. The information you use should be accurate and relevant to the question or issue you are addressing.

Questions which target information

- What information do I need to answer this question?
- What data are relevant to this problem?
- Do we need to gather more information?
- Is this information relevant to our purpose or goal?
- On what information are you basing that comment?
- What experience convinced you of this? Could your experience

be distorted?

- How do we know this information (data, testimony) is accurate?
- Have we left out any important information that we need to consider?

(4) Watch Your... Inferences

Inferences are interpretations or conclusions you come to. Inferring is what the mind does in figuring something out. Inferences should logically follow from the evidence. Infer no more or less than what is implied in the situation.

Questions to check your inferences

- What conclusions am I coming to?
- Is my inference logical?
- Are there other conclusions I should consider?
- Does this interpretation make sense?
- Does our solution necessarily follow from our data?
- How did you reach that conclusion?
- What are you basing your reasoning on?
- Is there an alternative plausible conclusion?
- Given all the facts what is the best possible conclusion?
- How shall we interpret these data?

(5) Clarify Your... Concepts

Concepts are ideas, theories, laws, principles, or hypotheses we use in thinking to make sense of things. Be clear about the concepts you are using and use them justifiably.

Questions you can ask about concepts

- What idea am I using in my thinking? Is this idea causing problems for me or for others?

- I think this is a good theory, but could you explain it more fully?
- What is the main hypothesis you are using in your reasoning?
- Are you using this term in keeping with established usage?
- What main distinctions should we draw in reasoning through this problem?
- What idea is this author using in his or her thinking? Is there a problem with it?

(6) Check Your... Assumptions

Assumptions are beliefs you take for granted. They usually operate at the subconscious or unconscious level of thought. Make sure that you are clear about your assumptions and they are justified by sound evidence.

Questions you can ask about assumptions

- What am I assuming or taking for granted?
- Am I assuming something I shouldn't?
- What assumption is leading me to this conclusion?
- What is... (this policy, strategy, explanation) assuming?
- What exactly do sociologists (historians, mathematicians, etc.) take for granted?
- What is being presupposed in this theory?
- What are some important assumptions I make about my roommate, my friends, my parents, my instructors, my country?

(7) Think Through the... Implications and Consequences

Implications are claims or truths that logically follow from other claims or truths. Implications follow from thoughts. Consequences follow from actions. Implications are inherent in your thoughts, whether you see them or not. The best thinkers think through the logical implications in a situation before acting.

Questions you can ask about implications

- If I decide to do “X”, what things might happen?
- If I decide not to do “X”, what things might happen?
- What are you implying when you say that?
- What is likely to happen if we do this versus that?
- Are you implying that... ?
- How significant are the implications of this decision?
- What, if anything, is implied by the fact that a much higher percentage of poor people are in jail than wealthy people?

(8) Understand Your... Point of View

Point of view is literally “the place” from which you view something. It includes what you are looking at and the way you are seeing it. Make sure you understand the limitations of your point of view and that you fully consider other relevant viewpoints.

Questions to check your point of view

- How am I looking at this situation? Is there another way to look at it that I should consider?
- What exactly am I focused on? And how am I seeing it?
- Is my view the only reasonable view? What does my point of view ignore?
- Have you ever considered the way _____ (Japanese, Muslims, South Americans, etc.) view this?
- Which of these possible viewpoints makes the most sense given the situation?
- Am I having difficulty looking at this situation from a viewpoint with which I disagree?
- What is the point of view of the author of this story?
- Do I study viewpoints that challenge my personal beliefs?

Appendix 2

Excerpts From Core Principles of Media Literacy Education in the United States

(November 2007)

The purpose of media literacy education is to help individuals of all ages develop the habits of inquiry and skills of expression that they need to be critical thinkers, effective communicators, and active citizens in today's world.

A: Media literacy education requires active inquiry and critical thinking about the messages we receive and create.

Implications for Practice

The process of effective media analysis is based on the following concepts:

(1)

- All media messages are “constructed” .
- Each medium has different characteristics, strengths, and a unique “language” of construction.
- Media messages are produced for particular purposes.
- All media messages contain embedded values and points of

view.

- People use their individual skills, beliefs, and experiences to construct their own meanings from media messages.
- Media and media messages can influence beliefs, attitudes, values, behaviors, and the democratic process.

(2) MLE teaches students to ask the specific types of questions that will allow them to gain a deeper or more sophisticated understanding of media messages.

The accompanying appendix—Key Questions to Ask When Analyzing Media Messages—provides a model of such questions. Because instructional practices must be modified appropriately for learners of different ages and in different settings, the process of critical questioning and the specific wording of questions may vary. Some questions may not apply to every media message, and questions will often have more than one answer. As with all critical questioning processes, the end goal is to enable students to regularly ask the questions themselves.

(3) MLE emphasizes strong sense critical thinking, i. e. , asking questions about all media messages, not just those with which we may disagree.

(4) MLE trains students to use document-based evidence and well-reasoned arguments to support their conclusions.

(5) MLE is not about replacing students' perspectives with someone else's (your own, a teacher's, a media critic's, an expert's, etc.). Sharing a critique of media without also sharing the skills that students need to critically analyze media for themselves is not sound MLE practice. This includes presenting media literacy videos, films, books, or other curriculum materials as a substitute for teaching criti-

cal inquiry skills.

(6) MLE teachers do not train students to ask IF there is a bias in a particular message (since all media messages are biased), but rather, WHAT the substance, source, and significance of a bias might be.

(7) For MLE teachers, fostering critical thinking is routine. MLE calls for institutional structures to support their efforts by actively encouraging critical thinking in all classrooms.

(8) Simply using media in the classroom does not constitute MLE.

B: Media literacy education expands the concept of literacy (i.e., reading and writing) to include all forms of media.

Implications for Practice

(1) Like print literacy, which requires both reading and writing, MLE encompasses both analysis and expression.

(2) MLE enables students to express their own ideas through multiple forms of media (e.g., traditional print, electronic, digital, user-generated, and wireless) and helps students make connections between comprehension and inference-making in print, visual, and audio media.

(3) MLE takes place in a variety of settings, including, but not limited to: schools, afterschool programs, online, universities and colleges, religious institutions, and the home.

(4) MLE should be taught across the preK-12 curriculum. It can be integrated into nearly any subject area.

(5) MLE welcomes the use of a broad range of media “texts”, including popular media.

(6) MLE recognizes that evolving media forms, societal chan-

ges, and institutional structures require ever new instructional approaches and practices.

(7) Effective MLE requires classrooms to be equipped with the tools to both analyze and produce media.

(8) MLE intersects with other literacies, i. e. , is distinct from but shares many goals and techniques with print, visual, technology, information, and other literacies.

(9) As a literacy, MLE may have political consequences, but it is not a political movement; it is an educational discipline.

(10) While MLE may result in students wanting to change or reform media, MLE itself is not focused on changing media, but rather on changing educational practice and increasing students' knowledge and skills.

C: Media literacy education builds and reinforces skills for learners of all ages. Like print literacy, those skills necessitate integrated, interactive, and repeated practice.

Implications for Practice

(1) Media literacy is not a “have it or not” competency, but rather an ever evolving continuum of skills, knowledge, attitudes, and actions.

(2) The requirements of MLE cannot be addressed by a single event, class, day, or even week-long intervention. Rather, MLE teachers seek to provide students with numerous and diverse opportunities to practice and develop skills of analysis and expression.

(3) MLE engages students with varied learning styles.

(4) MLE is most effective when used with co-learning pedagogies, in which teachers learn from students and students learn from teachers and from classmates.

(5) MLE builds skills that encourage healthy lifestyles and decision making; it is not about inoculating people against presumed or actual harmful media effects.

(6) MLE teaches media management in a way that helps students learn to make informed decisions about time spent using media and which media they choose to use.

(7) Making decisions for other people about media access or content is not MLE.

D: Media literacy education develops informed, reflective, and engaged participants essential for a democratic society.

Implications for Practice

(1) MLE promotes student interest in news and current events as a dimension of citizenship, and can enhance student understanding of First Amendment rights and responsibilities.

(2) MLE is designed to create citizens who are skeptical, not cynical.

(3) MLE gives students the skills they need to take responsibility for their own media use.

(4) MLE invites and respects diverse points of view.

(5) MLE explores representations, misrepresentations, and lack of representation of cultures and countries in the global community.

(6) MLE values independently produced media.

(7) MLE trains students to examine how media structures (e. g. , ownership, distribution, etc.) influence the ways that people make meaning of media messages.

(8) MLE recognizes that HOW we teach matters as much as WHAT we teach. Classrooms should be places where student input is respected, valued, and acted upon.

(9) MLE is not partisan.

(10) MLE is not a substitute for government regulation of media, nor is government regulation a substitute for MLE.

(11) Censorship or other efforts aimed at keeping selected media beyond the access of selected audiences do not achieve the skill-building goals of MLE.

(12) MLE is not a substitute for media meeting their responsibility to serve the public interest. At the same time it is not about media bashing, i. e. , simplistic, rhetorical, or over-generalized attacks on some types of media or media industries as a whole.

E: Media literacy education recognizes that media are a part of culture and function as agents of socialization.

Implications for Practice

(1) MLE integrates media texts that present diverse voices, perspectives, and communities.

(2) MLE includes opportunities to examine alternative media and international perspectives.

(3) MLE addresses topics like violence, gender, sexuality, racism, stereotyping, and other issues of representation.

(4) MLE shares with media owners, producers, and members of the creative community responsibility for facilitating mutual understanding of the effects of media on individuals and on society.

(5) MLE does not start from a premise that media are inconsequential or that media are a problem.

(6) MLE does not excuse media makers from their responsibility as members of the community to make a positive contribution and avoid doing harm.

F: Media literacy education affirms that people use their individual

skills, beliefs, and experiences to construct their own meanings from media messages.

Implications for Practice

(1) MLE is not about teaching students what to think; it is about teaching them how they can arrive at informed choices that are most consistent with their own values.

(2) MLE helps students become aware of and reflect on the meaning that they make of media messages, including how the meaning they make relates to their own values.

(3) MLE is not about revealing to students the “true” or “correct” or “hidden” meaning of media messages, nor is it about identifying which media messages are “good” and which ones are “bad” . In MLE, media analysis is an exploration of riches, rather than “right” readings.

(4) MLE recognizes that students' interpretations of media texts may differ from the teacher's interpretation without being wrong.

(5) MLE recognizes and welcomes the different media experiences of individuals of varying ages.

(6) MLE uses group discussion and analysis of media messages to help students understand and appreciate different perspectives and points of view.

(7) MLE facilitates growth, understanding, and appreciation through an examination of tastes, choices, and preferences.

Note: Throughout the document, “MLE” will be used as an abbreviation for media literacy education.

Appendix 3

Eight Key Concepts of Media Literacy

(1) Media texts construct reality.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- How do the codes and conventions used in this text help to convince its audience that it is representing reality?
- Who is represented in this text; what kinds of people? Who is omitted? How might the omissions be significant?
- What situations or events are represented? What situations or events might be conspicuous by their absence?
- Are the representations accurate or valid? If not, what modifications might make them accurate or valid?
- If you could give the producer of this text some advice about how to improve it, what would it be?
- If you could ask the producer a question about this text, what would it be?

(2) Media texts construct versions of reality.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- What medium/media of communication is/are involved in the construction of this text? (Often more than one are occurring in harmony.)
- Of what other media texts does this text remind me?
- What is the name for this type of media text? or To what category might it belong? (form, genre)
- What are the biases of this medium?
- What are the biases of this media form?
- How might those biases be influencing the meaning (s) people make?

(3) Audiences negotiate meaning.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- Is this text appealing? To whom?
- To whom might it NOT be appealing? Why?
- Which elements are used to engage/attract the audience (colour, visuals, sound, word choice, celebrities, etc.)?
- What assumptions does this text make about its audience?
- What is my interpretation of the meaning of this text?
- Who might interpret it similarly/differently? Why?
- Does this text “speak” to me? Do I like what it's saying? Why?

(4) Media messages have economic implications.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- Who benefits economically from the production of this text? How?
- Who might be negatively affected economically by this text? How?

- How was the production of this text paid for? /Who funded the production of this text?
- How do the funders make a profit from this text?
- If the funders DON'T make a profit, what DO they get from the audience's consumption of this text?
- What do consumers pay to consume this text? If consumers DON'T pay any money to consume this text, what might they sacrifice (time)?
- If this text contains NO commercial implications, why was it created? (pleasure)

(5) Media texts communicate values messages.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- Whose value are represented?
- Whose values are NOT represented?
- Does the text misrepresent any values?
- Are my values/beliefs represented?
- Are my friends' values represented?

(6) Media texts communicate political and social messages.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- What assumptions does the producer make about the audience? (gender, race, class, interests)
- Who benefits from the production of this text? How?
- Who might be negatively affected by this text? How?
- What is this text's political point of view?
- How might this text influence its audience's political point of view?

(7) Form and content are closely related in each medium.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- What media form is this?
- What media genre is this?
- How do the form and genre shape the content of the text?
- How does the content influence the characteristics of the form?

(8) Each medium has a unique aesthetic form.

Questions to support understanding this concept:

- What set of codes and conventions combine to communicate the aesthetics of this text?
- What makes this a pleasurable text?

Appendix 4

Full Texts of the News Samples

Sample 1

China's Road and Belt initiatives to bring new momentum to world growth

English. news. cn | 2015 - 04 - 14 14 :33 :09 | Editor: huaxia

BEIJING, April 14 (Xinhua) —China's Belt and Road initiatives are welcomed by officials and experts worldwide, who believe they would inject new momentum into the economies in Asia and beyond, and promote win-win cooperation between China and many other countries.

Put forward by Chinese President Xi Jinping during his overseas visits in 2013, the initiatives include the Silk Road Economic Belt—from China via Central Asia and Russia to Europe, and the 21st Century Maritime Silk Road—through the Strait of Malacca to India, the Middle East and East Africa.

The initiatives will provide new opportunities for Myanmar in its

economic development efforts, Myanmar's presidential spokesman U YeHtut said Thursday in an interview with Xinhua.

U YeHtut, who is also the minister of information, said President Thein Sein expressed his welcome of China's advocacy of the "Belt and Road" initiatives during his visit to China.

"When President Thein Sein visited China and discussed with Chinese leaders, he said Myanmar welcomes the Belt and Road initiatives. I think that the initiatives will bring new economic opportunities to Myanmar and its people," said the spokesman.

Singaporean Prime Minister Lee Hsien Loong also hailed the initiatives as "positive."

"I think these are positive proposals by China to cooperate with the countries in the region along Southeast Asia and South Asia and also to Central Asia, to Europe," Lee said Friday at the two-day "Singapore Forum 2015" which concluded Saturday.

The United Arab Emirates (UAE) is also trying to play a unique role in China's "Belt and Road" initiatives by expanding its industrial free zones and markets.

Mohammed Al-Gergawi Fahad Al-Gergawi, CEO of Dubai's foreign direct investment office, said the UAE had itself "perfectly positioned" to be part of the new Belt and Road initiatives.

On March 28, China published an action plan for its Belt and Road initiatives based on the four principles of openness and cooperation; harmony and inclusiveness; market operation; and mutual benefit, emphasizing policy coordination, connectivity, unimpeded trade, financial integration and people-to-people bonds.

The historic plan will have dramatic implications for the entire Asian Region and many other parts of the world as well, Robert Hor-

mats, former US undersecretary of state for economic growth, energy and the environment, said in a recent interview with Xinhua.

“These initiatives combined represent a historically important set of international economic initiatives led by China; there has been nothing of this scale and historical significance since the 1940s and 1950s,” said Hormats, adding “this is truly a great and historic endeavor.”

Hormats said the benefits from these historic initiatives will come from boosting trade and investment and enabling capital to flow to areas that need it most.

In addition, the boost in global commerce this can produce will enhance the prosperity of many countries in Central Asia, he added.

“I think the Belt and Road initiatives can make a major contribution to the region if regional neighbors are actively involved in all phases of design and implementation, which seems to be a key feature of the plan,” said Hormats.

Pieter Bottelier, a senior adjunct professor of China studies at the School of Advanced International Studies of the Johns Hopkins University, echoed Hormats' opinion, saying “I am very impressed by the action plan announced by the (Chinese) government. It opens significant new perspectives on development in central and western Asia.”

Bottelier said China has the capability and financial resources to provide those public goods globally, which makes the plan look “very interesting and promising.”

The success of the plan “depends really on the quality of the projects and on the degree of the cooperation between China and neighboring countries,” Bottelier added.

Sample 2

Overseas observers speak highly of Chinese premier's speech at Boao forum

Source: Xinhua | 2016 - 03 - 25 18 :42 :03 | Editor: Tian Shaohu

BEIJING, March 25 (Xinhua) —The keynote speech delivered by Chinese Premier Li Keqiang at the opening ceremony of the 2016 annual conference of the Boao Forum for Asia (BFA) has put forth a new vision for promoting regional development and revitalizing Asia, overseas observers said Thursday.

It also shows China's resolve to deal with challenges and could help restore public confidence in the global economic outlook, they added.

Li gave the speech, titled “Asia's New Future: New Dynamics and New Vision” on Thursday at BFA 2016's opening ceremony in China's southernmost island province of Hainan.

BUILDING VIBRANT ASIA

In his speech, Premier Li put forward a series of concrete proposals to promote Asian cooperation and development.

The premier said that China is proposing an Asian financial cooperation association to optimize the regional financial market and avoid large-scale financial turbulence, and stands ready to link the “Belt and Road” Initiative with development plans of countries in Asia and regional organizations.

He also expressed the hope that Asia's regional trade deal, the Regional Comprehensive Economic Partnership (RCEP), can be reached within this year.

The proposals came at a time when Asia needs a new model of development to replace the outdated export-and investment-oriented

economy, said JinJianmin, a senior fellow at Japan's Fujitsu Research Institute.

China has called for deepening integrated regional development, conducting cooperation in infrastructure and other fields, and promoting interconnectivity, which could jointly bring about an expansion in trade due to improved communication, Jin said.

He noted that the e-commerce based on the Internet could promote innovation among small- and medium-sized enterprises.

Asia has tremendous potential for future development, since Asia has the capital and technology to realize self-innovation, he added.

Asian countries have established a number of bilateral trade agreements that have promoted regional development over the past five years, but a broader framework such as the RCEP which could link all the smaller ones would be better, said JamesLaurenceson, deputy director of the Australia-China Relations Institute at the University of Technology Sydney.

Laurenceson noted that with China and India being included, the RCEP will boast huge advantages given the two Asian giants' capability of creating economic growth and trade opportunities.

The vitality of Asia could come from the Internet economy and innovation, in which China has made impressive achievements as a model for other countries, said Laurenceson.

LiJianxiong, senior adviser at the China-ASEAN Business Council, hailed the "Belt and Road" Initiative, which, he said, has facilitated regional cooperation, infrastructure construction and integrated development.

The RCEP could be a strong supplement of the "Belt and Road" Initiative by enlarging cooperation, said Li.

CHINA'S RESOLUTION ENHANCES WORLD CONFIDENCE

While calling for closer cooperation among Asian countries, Premier Li identified China's reform and opening-up drive, economic restructuring, improving people's livelihood and people's vitality and innovative capacity as China's four reliable growth engines.

“Premier LiKeqiang has shown determination when tackling the challenges that the Chinese economy is facing as it shifts its growth model,” Dominique de Villepin, the former French prime minister, told Xinhua after Li's speech.

China's change is under way, which is evident in the growth of the sector of services and domestic consumption, said deVillepin, adding that innovation and large-scale investments in sustainable development listed in the 13th Five-Year Plan also reflect the change.

The growth of China, Europe and the world is closely linked, which is why China's “Belt and Road” Initiative is so important, he said.

Premier Li's speech boosts confidence in the Chinese economy, said LiJianxiong, explaining that the Chinese economy will not “hard land” as feared by other countries. It is still growing at a relatively high speed as a big economic entity, he said.

China's reform is systematic and step-by-step while the Chinese government has started dealing with problems in the economic transformation, which has already shown positive development, added Li.

China's reform is heading in the right direction, especially by allowing the market to play a bigger role in resource distribution, said Yang Xian, dean of the National University of Singapore Business School.

Yakov Berger, senior researcher with the Institute of Far Eastern Studies of the Russian Academy of Sciences, hoped that China could carry out reforms and ensure a sustainable growth not only in the short term but also in the long run.

Sample 3

Europe at crossroads as Brussels attack unveils escalating terror activity

Source: Xinhua | 2016 - 03 - 23 23:07:40 | Editor: huaxia

BEIJING, March 23 (Xinhua) —As Belgium recovers from Tuesday's deadly attacks with sympathy and support shown across the world, Europe finds itself standing at a crossroads with difficult decisions to be made on the security and social fronts.

IMMIGRATION, REFUGEE POLICY UNDER PRESSURE

The United Nations General Assembly quickly condemned the attacks, which killed 34 people and injured more than 180 others at the Brussels airport and a metro station nearby European Union institutions. Brussels was the latest in a string of terror attacks that hit Turkey, Iraq and Ivory Coast last week.

Meanwhile, the Brussels attack will only heighten security across Europe, which is already on high alert following two deadly attacks in Paris last year.

A pattern of escalating violence is clear. Aside from much needed improvements in intelligence and security, experts believe that Europe's immigration policies and Western democratic values at large will need to be re-examined.

SongLuzheng, a scholar and commentator living in France, warned once again that a “clash of civilization” would unfold if Europe is unable to readjust its immigration policies and strike a balance

between integrating immigrants into mainstream society and preserving their unique roots.

Song had raised the issue of “a divided society,” caused mainly by the relative “isolation” of minority groups in some European countries, mostly composed of immigrants and disadvantaged groups, after the attack on Charlie Hebdo magazine in Paris in January 2015.

The cartoon weekly had repeatedly ridiculed Prophet Muhammad, which is considered disrespectful and a violation of Islamic practice. But its supporters believe it had a right to do so, citing “freedom of expression” and dismissing the upset feelings from Muslims.

The situation in Europe has worsened with the influx of refugees and migrants displaced by conflicts in the Middle East and North Africa.

“The refugee problem and terrorist activities are two major challenges facing Europe, which are also closely connected,” said Shen Xiaoquan, a senior research fellow at the Center for International Affairs Studies of Xinhua.

The more furious the terror activities are, the louder the voice against refugees will become in Europe, Shen said, adding that the Brussels attack has become one more reason to strip down Europe's current refugee policy.

SECURITY TIGHTENED, PANIC SPREADS

European countries have stepped up security measures and are seeking solidarity in confronting terrorism.

In the Netherlands, Belgium's northern neighbor, police increased monitoring and surveillance over suspicious activity across the country. There was increased police deployment at train stations in its four major cities and at other train stations with international traf-

fic.

Tightened border controls were introduced at the southern border of the Netherlands, and trains to and from Brussels no longer ride. People travelling to Belgium were stranded at train stations in cities near the Belgian border.

In Paris, security patrols were reinforced in the French capital's two main airports. Additional police forces have been deployed to control trains coming from Belgium.

German police have increased security on the borders with Belgium, France, the Netherlands and Luxembourg, as well as German airports and railway stations.

Security measures have also been beefed up in Britain, Denmark, Norway, Finland, Italy, Greece, Poland, Slovakia, Croatia, Romania, Bulgaria, Czech Republic.

The attacks have also provoked a global panic.

In Turkey, an international football tournament which was scheduled to be held in the western coastal province of Izmir, has been postponed over security reasons.

"After the terror attacks in Brussels, European clubs decided not to send their football teams to Izmir," a statement at Izmir Cup's website said.

EU OFFICIALS TO MEET

The Dutch presidency of the EU will organize a ministerial meeting of the bloc to discuss the attacks in Brussels "possibly Thursday morning," said a Dutch minister.

Earlier in the morning, Dutch Prime Minister Mark Rutte told the press after a cabinet meeting that the Netherlands is in close contact with Germany, Belgium and France in case additional measures

are required.

On Wednesday, Belgian Prime Minister Charles Michel will host a prearranged visit by his French counterpart, Manuel Valls, who declared “We are at war” following the attack.

The Brussels attacks came four months after the Paris bloodshed in which terrorists bombed several places in the city and killed 130 people.

Brussels was later found out to be highly linked to the Paris attacks as it served as a hiding place for the terrorists. Salah Abdeslam, the most wanted Paris suspect, was arrested in Brussels on Friday.

Sample 4

EU to enhance anti-terrorism cooperation after Brussels attacks

Source: Xinhua | 2016 - 03 - 25 04:30:03 | Editor: huaxia

BRUSSELS, March 24 (Xinhua) —The European Union (EU) pledged to enhance its collective ability to combat terrorism on Thursday in the wake of deadly Brussels attacks.

The justice and security ministers of the EU member states held an extraordinary meeting two days after the terror atrocity in Brussels as a series of explosions at its airport and a metro station have caused at least 31 deaths.

The meeting was intended to show the EU's solidarity with Belgium, discuss the actual state of play in the fight against terrorism and pursue swift completion and implementation of legislation.

The ministers decided to adopt the air passenger name record (PNR) directive in April 2016 and implement it as a matter of urgency. The measure will ensure that passenger information units (PIUs) exchange data between them as soon as possible.

The ministers renewed their calls for more intelligence sharing

and use of EU databases like the Schengen information system or Europol's database.

According to a joint statement released by the ministers after the meeting, the EU will present by June 2016 concrete deliverables, in particular to improve the collecting, checking and connecting of information in the field of counter terrorism.

In this context, the ministers urged the relevant sectors to accelerate the development of a European wide automated fingerprint recognition system integrated into the Schengen Information System (SIS) .

The EU member states said they will fully support the work of the Counter Terrorism Group (CTG), in particular by further accelerating the establishment of a dedicated platform for real time, multi-lateral information exchange.

Meanwhile, learning from recurrent patterns in terrorist attacks and supporting networks, the ministers encouraged the regular use of joint investigation teams. The teams have demonstrated their usefulness after the attacks in Paris, to coordinate investigations and gather and exchange evidence, they said.

Furthermore, the EU will set up a joint liaison team of national counter-terrorism experts at Europol's European Counter Terrorism Centre (ECTC) . This team will draw on Europol's law enforcement capabilities to monitor the threat from foreign fighters, the flows of terrorist financing and illegal firearms, and online propaganda.

After Paris attacks last November, a number of necessary steps have already been taken in fighting against terrorism. However, the ministers said they will pursue ongoing work in a resolute manner.

The ministers called for swift completion of the legislation on

combating terrorism, on systematic checks at external borders of the Schengen area, on control of the acquisition and possession of firearms and on the extension of the European Criminal Records Information System (ECRIS) to third-country nationals.

They urged EU member states to speed up their implementation of the action plan to fight terrorism financing.

Meanwhile, the ministers expressed their support and solidarity to Belgium, saying that they will stand determined in the common fight against terrorism.

Appendix 5

News Sources in the Samples

Table 1 News Sources in Sample 1

China's Belt and Road initiatives are welcomed by officials and experts worldwide, who believe...	Semi-specified
The initiatives will provide ... Myanmar's presidential spokesman U Ye Htut said ...	Specified
U YeHtut, who is also the minister of information , said ...	
"When President Thein Sein visited China ... to Myanmar and its people," said the spokesman .	
Singaporean Prime Minister LeeHsien Loong also hailed the initiatives as "positive" .	Specified
"I think these are positive proposals by China... to Central Asia, to Europe," Lee said Friday...	
Mohammed Al-Gergawi Fahad Al-Gergawi, CEO of Dubai's foreign direct investment office , said...	Specified
The historic plan will have dramatic implications for ... the world as well, Robert Hormats, former US undersecretary of state for economic growth, energy and the environment , said...	Specified
"These initiatives... since the 1940s and 1950s," said Hormats , adding ...	
Hormats said the benefits from these historic initiatives will ...	

continued

In addition, the boost in global commerce... in Central Asia, he added.	Specified
“I think the Belt and Road initiatives... which seems to be a key feature of the plan,” said Hormats .	
Pieter Bottelier , a senior adjunct professor of China studies at the School of Advanced International Studies of the Johns Hopkins University, echoed Hormats' opinion, saying...	Specified
Bottelier said China has the capability and financial resources...	
The success of the plan “depends really on... between China and neighboring countries,” Bottelier added.	

Table 2 News Sources in Sample 2

The keynote speech delivered by Chinese Premier Li Keqiang ... overseas observers said Thursday.	Semi-specified
It also shows China's resolve to... in the global economic outlook, they added.	
The premier said that China is proposing an Asian financial cooperation association to...	Specified
He also expressed the hope that Asia's regional trade deal ... can be reached within this year.	
The proposals came at a time... , said Jin Jianmin , a senior fellow at Japan's Fujitsu Research Institute.	Specified
China has called for deepening integrated regional development... due to improved communication, Jin said.	
He noted that the e-commerce based on the Internet could promote innovation among small- and medium-sized enterprises.	
Asia has tremendous potential for future development, since Asia has the capital and technology to realize self-innovation, he added.	
Asian countries have established a number of... said James Laurenceson , deputy director of the Australia-China Relations Institute at the University of Technology Sydney.	Specified
Laurenceson noted that with China and India being included...	
The vitality of Asia could come from the Internet economy and innovation... said Laurenceson .	
Li Jianxiong , senior adviser at the China-ASEAN Business Council, hailed the “Belt and Road” Initiative, which, he said...	Specified
The RCEP could be a strong supplement... , said Li .	

continued

Premier Li's speech boosts confidence in the Chinese economy, said Li Jianxiong , explaining that...	Specified
It is still growing at a relatively high speed as a big economic entity, he said.	
China's reform is systematic and step-by-step ... which has already shown positive development, added Li .	
"Premier LiKeqiang has shown determination when tackling the challenges... " Dominique de Villepin, the former French prime minister , told Xinhua after Li's speech.	Specified
China's change is under way... said de Villepin , adding that...	
The growth of China, Europe and the world is closely linked... he said.	
China's reform is heading in the right direction... said Yang Xian, dean of the National University of Singapore Business School .	Specified
Yakov Berger, senior researcher with the Institute of Far Eastern Studies of the Russian Academy of Sciences , hoped that...	Specified

Table 3 News Sources in Sample 3

Aside from much needed improvements in intelligence and security, experts believe that...	Semi-specified
SongLuzheng, a scholar and commentator living in France , warned once again that...	Specified
Song had raised the issue of "a divided society" ...	
"The refugee problem and terrorist activities are two major challenges... " said Shen Xiaoquan, a senior research fellow at the Center for International Affairs Studies of Xinhua .	Specified
The more furious the terror activities are, the louder the voice against refugees will become in Europe, Shen said, adding that...	
"After the terror attacks in Brussels... " a statement at Izmir Cup's website said.	Semi-specified
The Dutch presidency of the EU will organize a ministerial meeting... " said a Dutch minister .	Semi-specified
Earlier in the morning, Dutch Prime Minister Mark Rutte told the press ...	Specified

Table 4 News Sources in Sample 4

According to a joint statement released by the ministers after the meeting, the EU will present by June 2016 concrete deliverables...	Semi-specified
The EU member states said they will fully support the work of the Counter Terrorism Group (CTG) ...	Specified
The teams have demonstrated their usefulness after the attacks in Paris, to coordinate investigations and gather and exchange evidence, they said.	
However, the ministers said they will pursue ongoing work in a resolute manner.	Semi-specified
The ministers called for swift completion of the legislation on combating terrorism...	
Meanwhile, the ministers expressed their support and solidarity to Belgium, saying that...	

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